The Education Digest

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THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION FROM THE STANDPOINT OF SOCIETY

HARRY ELMER BARNES

MAN'S attitude toward the responsibility of education to society has altered markedly. In primitive and oriental society, education consisted chiefly in conserving the culture of the past. There was little thought of improving society; indeed, the very idea of altering the accepted social tradition would have been impious. The social order was the work of the gods, and hence as perfect as it could well be.

The Greeks were the first to challenge this attitude, to reject the traditional interpretations of nature and social institutions. The later Greek philosophers thoroughly comprehended that education might be an instrument of social reform and an agency in promoting human progress. However, their ideas got little practical application in their own day, and it was not until the eighteenth century that they were revived by the "perfectionists," who championed education as an instrument of social progress.

These doctrines were warmly espoused by the early American apostles of education as an instrument for the promotion of democracy. They labored mightily to bring about free public education. But altogether too little attention was given to the content of the education which, it was hoped, would extend and perpetuate democracy. Since the days of Horace Mann we have assumed to educate the common man for the duties of citizenship in the contemporary world. Yet despite the highly novel character of our civilization, the basic content of reputable education remains roughly what was deemed suitable for the education of the European nobility three centuries ago. Indeed, one of the most widely discussed of the recent plans for revamping our present educational system proposes to revive the curriculum utilized to train prospective priests in the thirteenth century.

Even progressive students of pedagogy have remained absorbed with individual responsibility, ignoring the fact that no individual can develop properly in a cramped and restricted social environment. Education must also bring about a constant improvement in our social thinking and constant readjustment in the structure of society. The failure of educators to become alert to this responsibility has helped to create the outstanding social crisis of our time—the tremendous and

ever-widening gulf between our mechanical equipment on the one hand and our social ideas and institutions on the other.

This gulf between our material culture and our institutional life imposes on mankind the most critical responsibility in the whole history of the race. If we bridge the gulf by bringing our social institutions up to date, we cannot evade the realization of a material utopia. On the other hand, if we fail to do this, we are likely to drift into economic collapse, war, barbarism, and chaos. The direct and immediate choice between utopia and catastrophe is the alternative offered western civilization today.

If we overhaul our economic system, put our unparalleled mechanical equipment at the service of mankind, and wipe out the menace of war, we can step into a condition which will make any of the utopias from Plato to Fourier seem drab, trivial, and uninviting. This assertion does not even imply that we must wait for future mechanical marvels. The resources are already at hand.

This is one side of the picture. But if we do not rise to our opportunities, the whole economic machine is bound to break down. It has already so far broken down in several countries that a well-nigh complete cessation of civilized tradition has been necessary to save it from complete collapse. In the world's largest country, capitalism, as we know it, has already disappeared.

To close the gap between our machines and our institutions is, therefore, the supreme responsibility of our generation. It is absolutely mandatory if we hope to preserve any modicum of real civilization. Why, then, are we not taking seriously this challenge?

In the first place, we entertain sharply contrasting attitudes toward mental and material antiquities. We demand the most up-to-date gadgets. The average man would be inexpressibly embarrassed if he were compelled to drive a 1920 model car, even though it were in perfect condition. But he deeply venerates a 1787 model constitution. So long as this state of mind exists there is little hope of closing the gap between material culture and human institutions.

At present, far from closing this gap, we are widening it. We provide every incentive to improve and extend our material equipment. Scientific prizes, royalties, profits, social prestige, are offered to those who provide us with more efficient machines and more convenient gadgets. But there are no prizes for the social inventor. On the contrary, even in the liberal United States, he is derided as a crank or denounced as a menace. In less tolerant countries, the firing squad or the concentration camp is his usual reward. At the very moment when we desperately need intelligent proposals for social reconstruction, we ferociously reject them.

In this task of bridging the gulf between machinery and institutions, we come immediately to the outstanding responsibility of education to society in our era. It boils down to three major phases of educational activity: (1) a highly selective conservation of the social heritage; (2) thorough-going and fearless social criticism; and (3) resolute and informal social planning.

How well does American education measure up to these responsibilities?

While it is as important as ever that we transmit the heritage of the past, we can no longer accept uncritically the total social heritage. We must sift it and eliminate those obstructive antiquities which are holding us back from bridging the gulf between technology and institutions. Yet education blindly conserves the past without any pretense at selection, save in the field of science. In regard to our basic institutions, it conserves the past as completely and religiously as did the primitive council of elders and the tribal medicine men.

There is amazingly little criticism of our social order, though such criticism is absolutely indispensable if we are to discover the weaknesses which threaten the very existence of a free and orderly society and to recognize the alterations which are essential if civilized decency is to prevail. The function of social criticism has been defaulted to men outside academic circles.

And when we examine the services of education to the formulation of a more equitable and workable social order we find that it has been even more deficient than in selecting what we shall accept from the past or criticising what we have today. From this point of view, formal education is literally a liability to the human race—a social disaster. Far from even indicating the desirability of a better type of civilization, it deliberately loads the dice in behalf of social stagnation. It stimulates a spirit of social intolerance rather than an attitude of courageous experimentation. It tends to discourage even the minimum reforms necessary to preserve a democratic civilization.

The necessity for those reforms is immediate. Most of the essential aspects of American civilization—representative government, democracy, civil liberties, private business enterprise—have disappeared or been thoroughly undermined in about two-thirds of Europe, and nearly everywhere else. In countries where education failed to assume its social responsibility in time, it has been subordinated to propaganda and dogma, its independence shorn away, and its personnel reduced to servility. If American educators similarly evade their responsibilities, it is hardly to be expected that they will be preserved from a similar fate.

I had better emphasize right here that when I refer to "a better social order for the future" I do not remotely imply an imitation of Soviet

Russia or even a moderate socialist regime. I have in mind only the very minimum reforms which might make American capitalism and democracy workable for at least a generation. If we are to follow the "middle way" between Communism and Fascism then we must not hesitate. If we hesitate too long, we shall not have the opportunity to do so. We can save ourselves from Fascism only if we move resolutely within less than a decade.

If education is to assume social leadership it must cease to be satisfied with abstractions, however sound and benevolent. We cannot fight off the concrete realities of Fascism by mouthing generalities about the glories of democracy and free business enterprise. Education must make clear its position with respect to such things as holding companies, monopoly, cooperation, the labor movement, and the like. It has no hesitation in declaring itself against disease in the physical world; it must be equally willing to condemn political, social, and economic evils. Education must teach us not only how to think straight but how to act straight in the midst of our social perplexities.

To sum up, American educators face two realistic alternatives. They can arouse themselves to the social responsibility of education, teach realistically and courageously those things which are essential to the preservation of democratic civilization, and organize themselves with sufficient coherence to insure their tenure while thus engaged. They may not succeed; but at least they can go down fighting, with the satisfaction of "having kept the faith and fought a good fight."

If our educators refuse to take such steps while there is yet time, it is almost inevitable that some form of regimentation roughly similar to European Fascism will settle down upon us. And this condition is not far off. There are numerous and powerful elements in American society which seem determined to create those social conditions out of which dictatorships and totalitarianism naturally and inevitably spring. When I was personally familiar with Germany a decade ago, Adolph Hitler was inconspicuous when compared with the repute in America today of even our second-rate protagonists of Fascism. He was literally an unknown when compared to the popularity of men like Father Coughlin. As Max Lerner has warned us, "it is later than we think."

[*Harry Elmer Barnes is the well-known historian and editorial writer for Scripps-Howard newspapers. Reported from an address before the American Association of School Administrators, March 1, 1939, at Cleveland, Ohio.*]

THE FRANK WIGGINS TRADE SCHOOL

BENJAMIN W. JOHNSON

In the California Journal of Secondary Education

"ARE you the principal of this school?" asked a husky youth of 22 one afternoon. "I work at Bakersfield. Left there two hours ago. I want training in servicing electrical refrigerators. I know a lot about one make. You see, I work in a shop that does all kinds of electrical service jobs. My boss will give me three weeks off now, part on my own time. Can I come here and spend the entire time, both day and night, and learn what I want to know for this job?"

With plans completed, he left an hour later for Bakersfield to be back on the job in the morning.

A young woman tells the registrar that she wants to be a waitress. She is accepted because she is the mother of three children, with a husband whose whereabouts are unknown. The training course here will get her the much-needed job.

Four years ago a young man waited his turn in the line that forms daily at the registrar's desk. He had an engineering degree from a university. At that time engineers were walking the streets looking for any old job. He asked how he could get into the commercial art department. His qualifications were acceptable—but why come here for commercial training?

He explained: "A thin pocketbook and no job in engineering—I have no experience. I must get some practical training at once and get a job."

"What job do you think you can train for?"

"I'm a good draftsman. I believe with the right training I can use this skill in showcard and lettering work."

There was a fair demand for this kind of work. He entered the class and soon showed his marked ability as a draftsman and letterer. He became fascinated with lettering design. He discovered that type faces of artistic merit have commercial value. Six months later he had produced a new type face. He copyrighted his design, sold it to a German type company, and now gets a liberal royalty for his creation. Today he has his own studio in New York, and has actually refused a $10,000-a-year offer that he might continue to develop his own lines.

The foregoing cases illustrate in a way the service of the Frank Wiggins Trade School. Something of the magnitude of this service is indicated by the fact that in 1937-38 the school enrolled more than 7,000 students, and placed some 2,700 trainees in jobs. Fifty thousand dollars per week in added payroll for the community is not an overstatement of the school's direct service.

The real test of a trade school is: Do students get and hold jobs in the occupations for which they are trained? Our school meets this test,

and consequently is performing an important service to the community.

The Frank Wiggins Trade School is a free public high school, under the Los Angeles Board of Education. Its building represented an outlay in 1926 of a million dollars. It is now overcrowded and unable to accomodate all eligible applicants. Over 75 percent of our students are high school graduates. The average age is 23 years. We are an adult educational institution. Students usually attend a four-hour session, either morning or afternoon, which permits them to work the other half day. There is an evening school for those unable to attend day classes. Eighty different trades are now being taught; others are under consideration.

The following services are provided: guidance and counseling, occupational training, apprenticeship training, placement, and follow-up.

Guidance and counseling should always precede vocational training. Guidance, it must be emphasized, is only the pointing out of possible solutions to the problem of what is best to do. The individual must always be left free to make his own choice and be made responsible for what he does. Guidance that does not carry through to preparation and training misses the mark; and similarly, vocational training fails if it does not carry through to placement on a job. The follow-up is required to determine how well the student is making good on the job. Has his training been adequate and suited to the needs of the job? Does he need further help? What are the opportunities for advancement? Are the working conditions suited to a growing worker.

The occupational training at our school is organized in short units corresponding to employment levels. There are no terms or semesters. The student can enter at any time and leave whenever ready for the job. A Diploma of Trade Proficiency is issued only after six months of successful experience on the job. Nearly 1,000 such diplomas were awarded last June.

Another valuable service is provided for tradesmen who wish to master new processes or developments in their field. For example, in the printing department, 20 journeymen attend afternoon classes to perfect themselves in new processes in presswork.

Apprenticeship training, unfortunately forgotten during the depression, is being revived, for industry is awake to the necessity of providing a supply of skilled craftsmen. Apprenticeship training is a form of extension and part-time training, with the added provision that the youth is "indentured" by an agreement among home, school, and employer, insuring that he will receive adequate training, have a job under good working conditions, and become a skilled craftsman.

The taxpayer—does the school serve him? Yes, in a number of

ways. His money produces not only a self-supporting citizen but an immediate asset in a contributor to the wealth of this community. The per capita cost for this school is no greater than for the senior high schools, and the financial burden is divided among the federal government, the state, the county, and the Los Angeles school district—the last bearing one-sixth of the total. Which is better—$156 to educate a youth in this school or $300 to train him in prison?

[*Benjamin W. Johnson is Principal of the Frank Wiggins Trade School, Los Angeles, California. Reported from the* California Journal of Secondary Education, *XIV (March, 1939), 141-45.*]

Current Quotations:

GEORGE D. STODDARD, Dean of the Graduate College and Director of the Child Welfare Research Station, State University of Iowa: "I have a hypothesis which thus far has not advanced beyond the 'guess-what' stage. Stated crudely it is this: That what children need in mental life, as in other aspects of development, is a good start. This good start will be in habits of experiencing, of inquiring, of relating, of symbolizing. Upon a solid structure of first-hand contact will be raised concomitantly a structure of words and symbols, of meaningful abstractions. A child may be pushed toward all this or away from it. If pushed away from it, he is not only deprived of opportunities to learn, but of opportunities to grow. He is progressively discouraged. On the other hand, with encouragement the child can make great strides in motor skills, in manipulation, in social contact, in verbalization, in the forming of abstract concepts. Differentials of birth, of heredity, tend to be wiped out by these stronger differentials in the dynamics of education and stimulation."

ELEANOR ROOSEVELT: "I wish that as a nation we would think first of teachers in terms of character, personality, and the special gift of imparting enthusiasm for acquiring knowledge. The basis of good national education is good teachers, and they are worthy of adequate pay and security in their old age. If they can accumulate degrees and write books along any line, well and good, but the first requisite should be their ability to inspire youth."

COMMUNITY SERVICE IN THE CURRICULUM

GLYN A. MORRIS

In the Curriculum Journal

A GIRL rides 14 miles on horseback once each week to provide library service to a one-room log school house as part of her training. A boy and girl go to a two-room cabin where someone is ill to cut the logs and place a window in the sick-room. These are a few of the activities of the "Community Group" organized as part of the curriculum at Pine Mountain Settlement School, a private boarding school in the mountains of eastern Kentucky.

The school is located in one of the pockets off the main highways in the southern highlands, where a residue of people subsist on very little, eking out a living from the bare, eroded hillsides. Children attend the local schools, on an average, 95 days a year, and only one out of ten finishes the eighth grade.

For a very nominal tuition, Pine Mountain School provides vocational training for youth of high school age. Room and board are given in exchange for the labor necessary to maintain the school kitchen, laundry, farm, infirmary, etc. All chores are handled educationally, and to these are added courses in mechanics, home management, typing, woodwork, and printing. Emphasis is on practical training; the school gives no grades or credits.

The Community Group came into being naturally after the school had parted company with a college preparatory curriculum. It serves three purposes. First, the community was badly in need of services which the students could perform under supervision. Second, in performing these services the student receives practical experience and is made conscious of the problems of the area. Finally, the members of the Community Group become interpreters of the school to the community. Misunderstandings grow out of the existence of one culture in the midst of another, and these are real barriers between the school and the community, particularly where the homes are so scattered that the school can rarely be used as a social center.

The "Group" began very modestly under the supervision of the nurse. The scattered nature of the community makes it impossible for the nurse to visit all the people who need her. It was decided that a definite service could be performed if each girl took a section of the creek, and by regular visits, two days a week, served as a scout for the nurse. Procedures were carefully worked out; particular attention was given to methods of establishing rapport. The student carried a small handbag in which were first-aid equipment and some reading material. This led to counseling with the mother about health problems. To a lonely mountain home, such visits are events which are often eagerly

accepted. Aside from their services as "Nurse Aid" with relief for colds, cuts, and burns, the students have brought friendly conversation and a contact with the school which had previously been impossible. The girls have done considerable practical nursing, and alleviated a few desperate situations when they cared for an entire bed-ridden family.

On returning at night, sometimes after walking as much as ten miles, each girl writes a report. Under the supervision of the sociology teacher, the group has made a genealogical chart of the community, disclosing the hereditary basis of some of the local social problems. Much of the sociology class work has grown out of the problems discovered in this area. Case studies have been made of each family, and the students tend to approach social problems more seriously and objectively.

With this program well under way, the group was enlarged and took on the regular service of teaching handcraft, singing, and folk dancing in the near-by one-room schools. The county superintendent became interested, and cooperated by purchasing handcraft equipment. Ten dental and two tonsil clinics were organized, and the school doctor is assisted in his regular clinics by the girls of the group. Just now the handcraft members are building a demonstration kitchen in a nearby school.

One outstanding achievement is that since January, 1938, 30 mothers have come to the school infirmary to have their babies. This is a tribute to the efforts of the nurse-aid girls. Ordinarily, local babies are born in the home, perhaps with the attention of a midwife, and the mother is never free from her daily cares.

Today the "Community Group" is an integral part of the school program. Its regular meetings bring together students and teachers committed to a long-time social program. The school is conscious of the growing friendship of the people. The students in the group have no difficulty in matching the academic achievement of those whose days are spent in regular classes, and their experience probably provides them with more actual achievement in personality growth. Participation in such a program brings out self-confidence and hidden resources. In several instances, teaching and nursing have been selected as vocations primarily because of experience with the group. Conversely, experience has also made it possible for several to learn that nursing, for example, was not, as they had previously thought, the profession they wished to follow.

[*Glyn A. Morris is on the faculty of the Pine Mountain School, Harlan County, Kentucky. Reported from the* Curriculum Journal, *X (April, 1939), 161-63.*]

TREATMENT OF SEVERE CASES OF READING DISABILITY

HELEN M. ROBINSON

In the Journal of Educational Research

AMONG the causes of poor adjustment at home and at school, reading disability is prominent. About one-fourth of the maladjusted children who come to us at the Orthogenic School at the University of Chicago come for this reason. Some have reached the age of 14 without learning to read more than a few words. This failure has resulted in personality changes in the child. He either withdraws, and becomes shy and timid, or he becomes aggressive and destructive.

The child is first removed from home and placed in a boarding school, where treatment is scientific and impersonal. In most cases, the parents, too concerned at reading failure, have applied too much pressure. This makes the child more tense and starts a vicious circle. So we tell the child we are not concerned about his reading and prove it to him by lack of emotion when he fails. This first step, then, is breaking a social pressure which has resulted in emotional tension.

By the time this has been started, the psychiatrist begins regular interviews with the child. He helps the child to resolve his conflicts regarding his failure and to accept his present status. This also aids the child to become more cooperative.

The complete diagnostic examination includes study by a psychologist, psychiatrist, social worker, reading technician, pediatrician, eye specialist, ear-nose-throat specialist, speech specialist, neurologist, and gland specialist. For about a month the child is in the clinics a great deal and unable to do much close work. The teacher uses this time to get acquainted, observing the child's interests and abilities. She encourages social contacts, and in this way is prepared to introduce reading by creating a need for it in a situation vital to the child.

Since books often have unpleasant associations, many of the first stories are typed on a primary-keyed typewriter. Often the child dictates to the teacher, who then revises the story to introduce words that need emphasizing. The child can then read his own story, getting cues from the context.

New words are added to the child's reading vocabulary by much reading of simple but interesting material. Our greatest problem, of course, is to find such material. Much of it has to be constructed. Many stories, such as Frank Buck's *Bring 'Em Back Alive,* have been rewritten in very simple vocabulary. The illustrations can be cut out and pasted in the new book by the child as he reads it. This gives him a feeling of ownership. Since children's interests and needs vary wide-

ly, a great deal of this simplification has to be done for each child.

If the child shows evidence of reversals, a careful analysis is made of hand, foot, eye, and ear preference. It is rarely possible to correct disagreement in preference, but in one case it seemed helpful. A boy of 12 could not seem to improve past the third-grade level in reading. He had been forced to learn to write with his right hand, although his history and all tests indicated a preference for the left hand, eye, ear, and foot. Three months after beginning to learn to write with the preferred hand he wrote better with it than he ever had with his right hand, while his reading improved a grade in six weeks.

All methods emphasizing left-to-right direction are employed for children who are not oriented as to direction. Often the kinesthetic method is used. The child traces over the word, saying it as he goes. A 3 x 5 card with a window cut in it to slide along the page is sometimes helpful. Other children gain faster by moving a pointer from left to right. Reading material is frequently typed and each phrase underlined with an arrow pointing to the right. An arrow is drawn from the end of each line to the beginning of the next so the child will form the habit of quick and accurate return sweeps. Available mechanical devices are sometimes useful, and some are helped by writing or typing words.

Charts of words mastered help the children to see their progress. Many games and devices are used to gain the child's interest in words and word mastery. While these are artificial devices and should be used no longer than absolutely necessary, they are very useful in the beginning.

It is essential at all times that the teacher be aware of the child's chief difficulties and commonest errors. The actual reading of a few paragraphs should be recorded at least once a week, and analyzed.

While each child must be handled differently, there are certain general principles: (1) a thorough diagnosis is essential; (2) training should be aimed at the cause of the difficulty; (3) the cooperation of the child is essential; its basis is his interest, which must sometimes be obtained in an indirect manner; (4) severe cases require psychiatric treatment and separation from parents; (5) the child will learn to read only by reading; it is thus necessary to get down to the child's level of achievement and provide much simple, interesting material so that he *will* read; (6) final resocialization in the community is the ultimate goal.

Helen M. Robinson is on the staff of the Orthogenic School, University of Chicago. Reported from the Journal of Educational Research, *XXXII (March, 1939), 531-35.*

DEMOCRATIC COOPERATION IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

O. S. Williams

In Cooperation Principles and Practices

ATTEMPTS at cooperative school administration usually assume one of three organization patterns. The first of these is the traditional committee organization. This is only a pseudo-democratic device if—as is usually the case—the committees are appointed by and responsible to the superintendent. Second is the open forum, in which the entire teaching staff meets to discuss and decide school problems and policies. This is practical only in a small school system. Third is the advisory council. In this type of organization the extent of democratic participation depends largely on the character of the council's membership and the manner of its selection. Even where members are selected by the teaching staff, one usually finds that all principals, supervisors, research directors, etc., are members by virtue of their position, which gives administrators more representation than other groups in proportion to their numbers.

This article describes an experiment in the council type of organization in a suburban school system of eight elementary schools, a junior high school, and a senior high school. The system employs 180 teachers. A questionnaire on the role of education in a democracy was sent to each teacher. Of the replies, 63 percent disagreed with the statement that public education in America has adequately performed its role in a democracy. Ninety-two percent thought the schools should be so run that our young people will live democratically in all aspects of school life. Ninety-seven percent thought that cooperative participation in school administration was an effective means of improving the quality of each member's contribution.

When the superintendent entered the system two years ago, cooperative participation in administration was found in separate building units only—usually in the form of teacher committees. The superintendent invited the officers of the teachers association, the principals, and representatives of the teachers in each building to act as his advisory body. This council at first served in a purely *advisory* capacity. But at the beginning of the second year the superintendent disclosed that he was ready to make the council a responsible body to *form* policies. Its membership was extended and now includes the superintendent, the director of research, the clerk of the board of education, the officers and chairmen of standing committees of the teachers association, the principals, and representatives of the teachers of each school. The council now actually formulates and adopts policies, and makes recommendations to

the board in matters where the board has discretion to act.

Some idea of how the council functions can be obtained from its attack on specific problems.

One of these was the matter of promotions. A committee was appointed, and after several weeks of study, recommended a shift from semi-annual to annual promotions. Although the council as a whole concurred, the committee itself insisted that before the change was made effective the community should have an opportunity to express itself on the matter.

Accordingly, in ensuing months, the question was discussed in parent groups and PTA meetings. Teachers made every effort to point out the disadvantages as well as the advantages of the plan of annual promotions. After many meetings, at which hundreds of patrons had heard the question discussed, the issue was finally put to a vote of the patrons. A majority favored the change, but about 40 percent were opposed. In view of the strong opposition of this minority group, the plan of shifting to annual promotions was temporarily abandoned.

The board, however, became so enlightened through discussion of the problem that it provided means of shifting to annual promotions for those who desired the change, with the feeling that a general shift to this practice would be made as patrons recognized its advantages.

Another problem that this school system has studied cooperatively is that of reporting pupil progress to the home. A committee of principals had been experimenting with various kinds of reports for four years. One school had prepared a form which seemed to produce good results, but when another school proposed to adopt it this school's PTA objected strongly. As a result of the parental dissatisfaction, a committee of parents and teachers was formed to study the problem.

On any matter where the home is directly concerned, the schools of this system have been eager to create the feeling among members of the community that the schools are theirs, and that all—teachers, pupils, and parents—need to work together in directing the activities of the schools. This concept of educational leadership which accepts the view that each has something to contribute and that there is a need to work things out together is a wide departure from the traditional practice, in which the administration formulates policies and then attempts to "sell" them to the school and the community.

Another committee of five members—two teachers, two parents, and a pupil—has conducted a study to determine the educational needs of the pupils. About 750 pupils in Grades VI, IX, and XII were asked to list their educational needs other than subjects then being offered in school. A group of pupils summarized the 5,000 cards by grades, and

the committee chose from each grade-list the hundred needs most frequently mentioned. While these were being studied in homerooms throughout the city, pupils were invited to take the statements home for discussion with their parents. The list of 100 statements was then further classified in 19 areas—health, sex adjustment, safety, use of money, home and family relationships, and the like. The final report was presented in the form of 20 statements summarized by students of the senior high school who were in the New Curriculum Experiment.

At the same time another committee of three parents, three teachers, and a pupil was at work to formulate the needs that are peculiar to citizenship in a democracy.

Mention should be made of a few other activities that have been carried on by means of democratic participation. The salary schedule now operating is essentially as formulated by the teachers association. The teachers association was also instrumental in developing a tenure policy. Teachers have selected texts to be used in the system. The council formulated the school calendar and established a policy concerning Christmas programs.

The principle of cooperation is carried down to the pupil level. The student councils actually participate in school management. As a typical example, the location of the homeroom period in the daily program in one high school was unacceptable to many students. The student council recommended that it be changed. The faculty was opposed to the change. But after listening to the reasons and facts with which the council supported its recommendation, the faculty accepted the change as desirable and put it into effect.

After having tried democratic participation, what is the reaction of teachers? Do they desire to continue it? In this system 74 percent of the teachers indicated a desire to participate in formulating policies and determining administrative procedures. Ninety-eight percent were willing to accept the responsibility that is an integral part of group planning. Contrary to the belief of some administrators, teachers do desire to participate in formulating school policies and are willing to accept the responsibility that goes with it.

O. S. Williams is a member of the faculty of the School of Education, Northwestern University. *Reported from Chapter XI,* Cooperation Principles and Practices, *the Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, Washington: The Department, 1938.*

DIRECT PUBLICITY

FREDERICK J. MOFFITT

IT has been well said that in our efforts to interpret the school to the public we should attempt to harmonize cultural differences, avoid social conflict, and stress the larger objectives of education in truthful, simple, and sincere form. But in direct publicity, while accepting this philosophy in theory, in practice we often bend it rather badly or even discard it completely. We are inclined to give it lip service and let it go at that.

If we are to keep faith with our philosophy we must outline a rather definite plan, so that direct publicity may be directed and controlled and we may stress the larger objectives in education which we have in mind.

1. Such a plan must be constructive and positive. Because of the cultural lag, educational procedures are under constant fire. It behooves us, then, to throw little but constructive suggestions into our direct publicity. We must not claim a perfection which we do not have, but we might do more of our fighting among ourselves and wash less linen in public. To counterbalance the attitude of the press, which stresses disagreements among educators, we must, in so far as we control our direct publicity, adopt a positive attitude.

2. Our plan must be practical. We must accept the world as it is. We are reformers by inclination and ex-officio by our job, and are apt to adopt a slightly sneering attitude toward the press and the radio. I have read 200 letters—three-fourths of them from schoolmen and PTA's—sent to a single radio station in protest against a certain daily program for children. School people glory in this fight for betterment. This is well and good in their role as reformers, but they should not mix such reform too heavily with their public relations program. Protests should not be made until we have constructive suggestions to offer. After all, newspapers and radio stations have to live. They will lend themselves to direct school publicity only when the school recognizes this practical situation and realizes that the newspaper and radio audience is not too interested in education by "educators."

3. Our plan must be democratic. We say that we need the help of everyone from the janitor to the child to the teacher in our direct publicity, yet many of us frown on any attempt by the staff to interpret the school. We welcome the publicity that goes into the home via school publications, but one doubts if the newspapers of Germany and Italy are more censored than our school newspapers.

4. Our plan must stress the larger objectives of education. The great temptation in direct publicity is to be satisfied if we are doing anything at all. The school has no trouble

getting publicity for the football team, but the press is often indifferent to the larger objectives of education on the ground that they are dull and not news. The educator must everlastingly hang onto his larger objectives until the time arrives when the general public will welcome that sort of publicity. It is a long and discouraging battle which all of us lose from time to time.

There are a number of misunderstandings which may cause even a carefully conceived plan of direct publicity to show signs of stress and strain when put to the practical test. The average school executive is not only impractical in his approach to newspaper, radio, and other direct publicity agencies, he is also sadly out of date. Publicity methods have changed tremendously in recent years. Many widely held concepts are erroneous in the light of present knowledge. For example, it has been almost axiomatic that we must speak to the public in terms that a sixth grader can understand. The schoolmaster, thinking in terms of his commencement speech to the grade school assembly, hands out a lot of worthless pap which is scorned by much of the public.

Not long ago a group of schoolmen were approached with appeals to help initiate a new radio program, somewhat "highbrow" in its implications, which would use the materials of education. When the plan was explained to the pedagogs they were certain that it would have no appeal because it was based on the erroneous assumption that the radio audience was, in the main, a mature adult group. So the program was put on the air without the help or blessing of educators. That program is the widely popular "Information, Please." It is a commercial program because it was vetoed by educational publicists as too heavy for the public.

Another difficulty we fasten on direct publicity is our abhorrence of any implication of propaganda. Again note the "holier-than-thou" attitude. In this day and age when all the forces of evil and most of the forces of good (at least those which survive) have to borrow some measure of propaganda, the school is going to be left a long way behind if it really believes it can eliminate all propaganda from its direct publicity program. If the school is an effective instrument in the continuance of the democratic way of life in which we believe, then propaganda is not only justified but needed —the propaganda of truth.

Another fallacy, which we repeat glibly, is that any publicity is better than no publicity. The schoolman is apt to sit back with satisfaction if he can count so much lineage concerning his school in the newspaper. But direct publicity is one of the most harmful things that can happen to a school system if it is vicious, unthinking, or just trivial. An undirected program can stretch out indefinitely into trivial publicity that acts as an anesthetic and yet com-

pletely ignores the main point in our philosophy: to keep in mind the larger objectives of education.

Any person who has submitted much material to newspapers or magazines knows that every publication has a distinctive character of its own which must be kept always in mind by contributors. Too many schoolmen forget that publicity must be written according to the style, character, and disposition of the newspapers they wish to employ. The day of the mimeographed bulletin is almost done. With government agencies pouring out thousands of releases daily, there is a sharp reaction to the general news release no matter how it is sugar-coated. Schools which wish to use the newspaper must write for the individual paper rather than attempt to send forth advertising under the guise of news.

Radio is a field that is only partially explored. Its possibilities for direct publicity in even small school systems are almost endless, and not many of us have studied them. Does your English class give plays over commercial stations? Has your history teacher been asked to comment on world affairs? Do you know what Rochester, N. Y., is doing with its school of the air?

As in the newspaper field, school people seem loath to acquaint themselves with radio technique. Radio in a short time has evolved habits which seem unfriendly to education, a tendency strengthened by the "reforming" instinct of the schools previously mentioned. But with the federal government making a real effort to bring radio to maturity, every radio station is clamoring for "educational" features which, in the natural order of events, should be supplied by nearby educational institutions. This is a service the school should render and a potential public relations instrument which should be utilized.

The common channels of direct publicity for schools have been press, radio, speeches, school publications and exhibits, and reports. The public forum has been neglected. It ought to be utilized. That "larger objective" is clearly met in the forum where we review the problems of democracy, the dangers that face us, and the place that education must take on the firing line. If we refuse to accept the challenge offered by the public forum, the school will be neglecting one of the greatest avenues in interpretation of the institution.

Frederick J. Moffitt is Superintendent of Schools in Hamburg, N. Y. Reported from an address before the American Association of School Administrators, February 28, 1939, at Cleveland, Ohio.

ADOLESCENT MOTIVES AS A FACTOR IN CONSUMER EDUCATION

THEODORE A. SHERMAN

In the Balance Sheet

DURING the current wave of interest in consumer education, many writers discuss the problem of subject matter and how it shall be divided up among the various school departments. But rare is the article which considers adaptation of the subject matter to the student.

What do we mean by adapting the subject to the student? Simply this: Remind ourselves what the motives are that influence the conduct of adolescents; see whether, in consumer education, these motives are the ones we utilize.

A few topics, of course, are so filled with interest that they are attractive for their own sake. Automobiles appeal to every high school student; saving, investment, and installment buying are fascinating because everyone likes to manipulate even imaginary money and to visualize himself owning what he wants. Misrepresentation and adulteration have a rather sensational "believe-it-or-not" interest. But aside from a few such topics, the material of consumer education needs motivation.

What are the motives to which we now appeal? One stands out as overwhelmingly conspicuous: the motive of saving money—usually not very large amounts of money. Consumer education teaches the student how to pick out a sheet for 98 cents that will wear as long as another that sells for $1.15; how to get for 13 cents a can of peas that equals the brand that costs 17 cents. There are exceptional parts, but the value of most consumer education material is that it shows methods of saving money to people of small incomes.

Does this motive have an effective appeal to the adolescent? We know that most students will have small incomes. But do they know it? Can we force that realization upon them? If we can, is it desirable to do so?

Despite current economic problems, youth has not lost its natural optimism. Except for those who are indeed the product of hard knocks, they instinctively visualize the future as they want it to be. Most students expect to earn incomes that will free them from the necessity of saving nickels and dimes.

If minor savings, then, are not a motive naturally appealing to young people, can they be effectively motivated by the other motives most natural to the subject matter—home comfort, security, health?

The first two, obviously, are closely allied to the money problem. For that matter, home comfort and security are not especially appealing to youth. He is more likely to want excitement and adventure. As for health, it cannot alone carry the burden of motivation.

Let us, therefore, turn from the motives growing out of the subject to the youngsters themselves. The motives of adolescents include the gang instinct, the desire for group approval. The student wants to be admired for strength and daring, and for attractive appearance. He has an instinct toward acquisition and toward imitation. He is motivated by plain, old-fashioned physical hunger. He wants admiration for his intelligence, at least to the extent of being known as a person on whom no one can "put anything over." Perhaps even more strongly than an adult, he resents any attempt to take unfair advantage of him.

These are the motives to which we must appeal.

For example, in buying clothing, durability has a pale appeal to the student as compared with appearance. But he can learn about fabrics, their strength, shrinkage, color, etc. through helping select athletic uniforms. The motivation here is group approval. To assist in getting the team fine equipment, or to save enough on jerseys to buy some new helmets, is an accomplishment which brings the student the admiration of his "gang," a really attractive reward.

The collector's instinct can be utilized in presenting material about weights and measures. Develop exhibits and collections to show types of containers which look larger than they are, to show labels which mislead by suggestive phraseology or by juggling the size of the type.

Especially useful is the student's desire to feel superior—to feel that no one can make a fool of him. That motive, combined with his natural indignation against imposture, will open his eyes to frauds. It will interest him in food and drug legislation. It will arouse him to the indignity of paying 20 percent interest on installment purchases, or 30 percent on loans. It will make him alert to the unworthy, trivial appeals of much advertising.

Thus far, consumer education has been concerned with subject matter to the exclusion of the student. Its proponents seem to feel that if we teach people that reason dictates a certain conduct, they will so conduct themselves. But any good salesman can upset that belief. He knows that our emotions govern us, quite as much as our minds. A study of student motivation will put consumer education on a sounder basis.

[*Theodore A. Sherman is on the faculty of the University of Idaho. Reported from the* Balance Sheet, *XX (April, 1939), 345-47, 384.*]

EDUCATION AND THE CONSERVATION OF RESOURCES

GEORGE T. RENNER
In the Social Frontier

"CAN the schools build a new social order?" is a question frequently heard. The query might better be: "Do the schools have vision enough to save the one we already have?"

Our social order derives from, and rests upon, a natural base of physical and biotic resources. Take these away and we have only man, without homes, clothing, fuel, or tools, and no source for securing them. In such a state it would matter little whether men were fascist, democratic, communistic, or anarchist. A necessary corollary is that where resources are scant the social order must be meager, and where resources are abundant the social order is apt to be opulent, active, and complex.

Nature has distributed resources very unequally. The United States was more liberally endowed than any other nation and hence we have become the richest country on earth. Most Americans, including many educators, have attributed this to the superiority of democracy and "the American way." We may hold fast to democracy forever, but this will not in itself perpetuate our prosperity. The two are simply not related. Iceland is a wonderful country with unusually able people living under a democracy better than our own. But it can never be rich, populous, or important; its resources are too slim.

The American people possess a dangerous plaything—an amazingly productive but voracious technology. It is so effective that during the past century we have converted more natural materials into economic goods than was accomplished during the entire prior span of human history. At the same time it has brought about vastly more waste than ever before. Its very productiveness has dazzled men into looking at the result rather than at the source. We have been living far beyond our geographical income, eating into our principle. The result has been a social order which most assuredly needs saving.

Our natural resources are still abundant, but their exhaustibility has become clearly apparent. Moreover, they have begun to wear so thin in places that unless remedial action be taken our social order must speedily enter a decline. Three-fourths of our lumber is gone, four-fifths of our wild game, half of our copper, two-thirds of our petroleum, one-third of our anthracite, and a large fraction of our richer iron ores. Nearly half our area has been subjected to soil erosion; within a few score years we have completely destroyed twice as much agricultural land as the Japanese nation possesses.

The seats of most ancient empires are today marked by ruin and desolation. Such devastation was wrought slowly, but in America we have ac-

complished undreamed of destruction in a mere 150 years. Moreover, the rate of destruction has been cumulatively progressive. Yet people have not been made clearly aware of what is happening, what it portends, and they have not been shown a way out. Clearly this is a task for the schools.

Why has not the dependence of society on resources been made the center of popular attention? The answer seems to be twofold: First, the student of social science has been engrossed by the study of institutions and ideologies to the extent of overlooking the fact that the whole structure is made from natural resources. Second, the original resources of this continent were so abundant as to stagger the imagination, and ten generations of Americans have continued to regard them as essentially limitless—which they decidedly are not.

Today, on every hand, are evidences in thousands of different forms of waste, destruction, and needless exploitation. Collectively, these indicate a fundamentally erroneous "way of life," eventually leading to economic decline and social ruin, and avoidable only by heroic measures. The problem cannot be legislated out of existence, for laws are ineffective unless supported by popular ideas. Scientists already possess the necessary ideas; the task is to transplant them to the minds of the people.

The first idea to be transplanted is that it is possible to preserve the physical basis of our social order, if action be not too long delayed, by a program of conservation. For our inexhaustible resources, that program calls for the substitution of full use for partial use or misuse, and of social use for selfish use. For our replaceable resources it requires the initiation of remedial measures before it is too late. For our exhaustible resources it demands some balance between the needs of our generation and those of generations to come.

This is not a program to be achieved by fiat, but rather by changing our fundamental social philosophy through education. To be successful, conservation education must realize the following objectives:

1. *To sensitize the individual to evidences of resource waste.* Most Americans are so conditioned to waste and disfigurement that they either fail to see them at all or accept them as inevitable.

2. *To correct the belief that resources are inexhaustible.* This almost universally held idea must be rooted out with all speed.

3. *To promote the idea of trusteeship in place of ownership.* The longest-lived are here but a few years, and no matter how much of nature we may secure legal title to, we cannot take it with us when we die. The implication of this is that, as individuals, we do not actually own anything. The ownership of the earth and its resources is vested in man-

kind rather than in individuals. We are trustees rather than owners, and we ought to be taught to give some consideration to the rights of future generations.

4. *To dispel the notion that science is a substitute for resources.* This belief is one of the greatest hindrances to the conservation movement today. The scientist himself has no such conviction. Science has substituted kerosene for whale oil, and steel for wood, but this means merely substituting an irreplaceable material for a replaceable one. It has swapped diesel oil for coal, but this means a limited material for a fairly abundant one. Science has given us an imposing array of substitutes for many materials, but for every substitute discovered two or three new uses have been invented.

5. *To create a new evaluation of ownership.* The belief is almost universal that the highest form of ownership is possession by the individual. For more than 150 years this has been evidenced by our almost feverish efforts to get the public domain into private hands. Some Americans are coming to realize that various forms of public ownership are higher and socially more useful forms, and therefore should take precedence. Here is an imperative task for reeducation of the nation.

6. *To build a new social philosophy of rights.* Legally, one may do about as he pleases with any gift of nature he may own. Soil may be destroyed, streams polluted, natural beauty defaced, public convenience destroyed.

Personal rights have received a vast deal of attention all through American history. The rights of society have been largely overlooked. The schools need to teach the people that no person, or group, or community has a right to use any resource in a manner inimical to the rights of society as a whole.

It is astonishing how little attention may be given to matters of great national importance. What is everybody's business promptly becomes nobody's business. But unless resource waste is soon made somebody's business, the United States will speedily be a dwindling country. Can people, organized democratically, conserve the physical foundation of their social order? Will we put education to work building a popular will for the conservation of resources before it is too late?

[*George T. Renner is Professor of Geography at Teachers College, Columbia University. Reported from the* Social Frontier, *V (April, 1939), 203-6.*]

THE SMALL SCHOOL COOPERATIVE

WARREN C. SEYFERT
In the School Review

IN spite of dosing with modern teaching methods, new curriculum materials, and social reorientation, the small high school continues to be a chronic inflammation on the body educational. Consolidation, undoubtedly a beneficial remedy, has been widely applied in recent years. But consolidation is not always possible. There are often physical or legal barriers. Sometimes the difficulty is psychological. Where a town has a long tradition of local autonomy, where pride in local institutions runs high, where jealousy and uncertainty characterize intercommunity relations, the idea of consolidation does not find ready acceptance.

Under these circumstances it is recommended that the small high schools of a region set up what may be called an educational cooperative. It is not argued that the proposal is an entirely satisfactory substitute for consolidation. But it would make it possible to realize many of the values of consolidations, and may also serve as a prelude to consolidation where it is now looked on askance.

While the same psychological factors which hamper consolidations will also hamper cooperation, they do not have the same force in both cases. Consolidation is an all-or-none process, but cooperation can be carried on in that kind and amount which will suit the temper of the communities involved.

Because its faculty is small and must ordinarily be used to the limit to maintain a minimal instruction program, the small school seldom has the variety of educational experts found in larger school systems. In dealing with the problem of special services, the heads of cooperating schools might proceed in the following manner. Suppose the common needs of the group of schools were for a person capable of diagnosing and treating reading problems at the secondary level; someone able to handle testing in expert fashion; a teacher able to formulate and direct guidance activities; and someone expert in curriculum making. Suppose also that the relative urgency of need is indicated by the order in which these have been listed. The administrators in the schools involved would then agree that at the first vacancy in any of the schools, effort will be made to fill it with a teacher who has, in addition to the usual qualifications for classroom work, at least an amateur's ability in dealing with reading problems. As soon as such a teacher has been found, attention would be shifted to obtaining a testing specialist. And so on. It should be added that one hobbyist should be located in each of the schools since the basis of the plan is voluntary exchange of teacher services, and each school will need to have something to exchange.

The advantages of this plan are apparent. Where several schools work together, the number of vacancies at any one time will be greater and more varied than in a single school, thus increasing the likelihood that somewhere within the group of schools it will be possible to fit together teacher and special job. The exchange of services will mean that each school, while employing but one specialist, will have the help and advice of four.

While the distances separating rural and village schools must be considered, these are often no greater than in large city systems, where individual supervisors and teachers often serve several schools. The most serious practical criticism of the plan is that the teacher-specialist may not have sufficient time to attend to all the problems in his field in all the schools of the cooperative. However, this problem is not too serious if the specialist is viewed primarily as an organizer and director rather than as a practitioner of his art.

Departmental organizations, permitting group attack on problems handled with difficulty by the individual teacher, are an important constructive influence in the large school. In the small high school, the teacher must for the most part work out his own salvation. In this area also, cooperative activities may be of assistance. Teachers' clubs in rural areas are not uncommon, so a precedent exists for the organization of interschool departments. Such groups ought to be teacher directed. They ought to concern themselves with teaching method and curriculum practices and give little attention to administrative matters.

A system of interschool departments would contribute much to the professional growth of teachers in small schools, giving the inexperienced teacher a professional group, more specialized than his own faculty, to call on for advice. And they should prove as valuable to the schools as to individual teachers. Continuity is difficult to maintain in the program of a small school. It is unlikely, however, that the entire department would be changed in one year, and its plans would be a powerful device for obtaining the desired continuity. Further, the small school is usually powerless to provide direct in-service training and adequate supervision for its teachers. Interschool groups could make a contribution here.

Curriculum making is another task which cannot be carried out successfully by a single teacher or even an entire small school. Perhaps an interschool department could not do a thoroughly expert job of curriculum revision, but its efforts would certainly be an improvement over the usual conditions. Each of the schools in the cooperative would profit in some measure from the abilities and ideas of all the teachers of all the schools in the group.

A second major problem of the small school has to do with materials

of instruction. The small school usually cannot provide either all the different kinds of materials needed, or all it needs of a given kind. In addition to the difficulty of getting sufficient equipment, it is confronted with the problem of making economical use of what it does have, especially such semipermanent materials as textbooks and laboratory instruments. Scientific equipment, for example, is costly and is needed only for brief periods. As a result, the small school either makes no attempt to purchase such material, or tries patiently, but not very effectively, to accumulate it over a period of years. The burden of purchasing this equipment could perfectly well be distributed among several schools. By such a plan each school would have access to far more equipment than it could ever hope to secure through its own unaided efforts.

The same general procedure could be applied to supplementary textbooks and collateral materials in all courses. The schools would determine their common needs and then divide the burden. Motion-picture equipment is a case in point. It should also be observed that cooperative buying may reduce costs in purchasing everyday materials.

In addition to such aspects of cooperation as those mentioned above, there are others only distantly related to financial considerations. For one, it should not be too difficult to apply the plan to the extracurricular field. Dramatics are a popular school activity, but in the small school preparation of an entire evening's performance taxes both teachers and pupils severely. But a group of one-act plays prepared by the schools in the cooperative and circulated throughout the communities would be just as valuable while reducing the load carried by the individual school.

Practices similar to those suggested here can be found in operation in scattered schools throughout the country; but there is seldom a conscientious attempt to exploit to the full the promise inherent in the cooperative attack on the problems of the small school. Too often the sharing of resources is looked on as a regrettable and temporary expedient rather than as an intelligent and economical device. It is easy to place the blame for the small school's isolation on the prejudices of the public. But often the responsibility belongs to the school administrator, who, like his public, cannot see beyond the boundaries of his own district.

[*Warren C. Seyfert is Assistant Professor of Education at Harvard University. Reported from the* School Review, XLVII *(April, 1939), 270-79.*]

WE GAVE THEM EXPERIENCE

WILLIA S. GIRAULT AND STEWART T. WALTON

In Educational Method

IN September, 1937, a group of 28 seniors in West High School, Denver, thought they knew the types of work in which they were interested, but they knew little of the preparation they needed or of the techniques of securing jobs. Our vocational project was aimed to give information on these points. It was no unit of textbooks and lectures. This was serious business for the student—preparation for real work.

We began with a study of the qualities which employers expect to find in their employees, rated each student in terms of the ideals listed, and then tried to determine methods by which his weaknesses might be overcome and strength maintained.

We then made a thorough study of the vocations in which class members were interested. Each student made a complete study of his own field, summarizing his material in a paper.

We then began to plan how to secure employment. We studied application methods in general, filled out application blanks, wrote and discussed letters of application. Interviews were studied rather thoroughly—what to say and how to say it, etc.—and several sample interviews were held before the class. We are indebted to the adult citizens who interviewed students under these somewhat unnatural but highly instructive conditions.

While this study was in progress, the teachers in charge interviewed "leads," supplied in part by the students themselves, and secured "jobs" for the students in their chosen fields. In most cases the jobs were actually arranged by the teacher, but in every case the student placed an actual application and presented himself for an interview. It was understood that all jobs were primarily for observation and that no remuneration was to be expected. Our purpose was to make sure that students should not take places which could be filled by adults who needed work.

The actual work began on October 18 and ended on December 3. Prearranged programs, omitting English and social studies, allowed the students to be excused from school at 12:45 for the remainder of the day.

It was difficult to secure places for students in certain fields—industries with commercial secrets, those demanding technical skill or requiring a bond of all employees. A general business slump added to the difficulty. However, most of our pupils found placement. Among the group were prospective secretaries, teachers, librarians, social service workers, newspaper reporters, accountants, a lawyer, a dental assistant, an architect, a printer, and others.

The comments of the students indicate that the experience gave them light on things of which they had

previously been unaware. One said, "I woke up to the fact that one can enjoy teaching"; another, "as a teacher I found that my greatest handicap was a weak voice"; a third, "I find that architects never stop studying." One girl "went to the Community Center full of enthusiasm for my work, but I was very disappointed after being there a few days. I expected to do real family case work, settling domestic difficulties and trying to help the mothers of problem children. I realize now that I have not had enough education or experience to give such advice, and people who are in difficulty wouldn't take advice from a person as young as I am."

Although it was not expected that permanent employment would result from the project, two such instances occurred, a librarian and a printer.

A check list was sent to the employers to determine what they thought of the experiment. The replies indicated that employers considered personality to be of highest importance. Next came accuracy, job knowledge, quality of work, and reliability. They indicated that our students were strongest in personality, willingness to learn, reliability, and personal appearance; their weakness seemed to lie principally in a lack of experience and a sense of inferiority. All employers expressed enthusiasm for the practical values of the project.

It was questioned whether students "kept up" in their other studies during the experiment. We found that, as a whole, their marks showed practically no change.

It is suggested that instructors who attempt this type of project should begin to get "leads" early and line up jobs as soon as possible. Delay will mean that some students will not be placed. Encourage the student to study his first choice intensively, but not to "sink or swim" with it. Jobs in allied fields will often serve as valuable a purpose as the original choice.

It is usually advisable for the teacher to contact the business man and sell the idea before the student arrives. Most business men are glad to cooperate if their business will permit. Making these contacts requires time and it is suggested that the instructor's schedule be arranged to give him free afternoons. An automobile is also essential.

Our experience showed that a pupil is much more likely to succeed if he works alone, rather than with a fellow student. It seems that most employers, to avoid favoritism, give the students the same rating on reports and assign them to similar tasks. This tends to dull the interest of the pupil, since his job placement is not wholly his own. Techniques enabling students to work together to advantage need to be developed. There was no difficulty whatever with organized labor, but if the project were to be greatly expanded some understanding would be necessary.

We believe this project did several significant things. It introduced the students to vocational fields; it offered them experience in the industrial world and gave them practical assistance in finding their place in that world. We believe the schools should assume more and more responsibility in the guidance, training, and placement of students in the world of work. Our experience also led us to believe that employers are enthusiastic about the idea. If details can be worked out, we feel that industry can be depended on to do its part.

[*Willia S. Girault and Stewart T. Walton are teachers in West High School, Denver, Colorado. Reported from* Educational Method, *XVIII (March, 1939), 262-65.*]

Variations . . .

★ A solution to the problem of safe schools in the hurricane area of the Florida keys has been approached by a type of rural school structure designed specifically to withstand the fury of the tropical storms. These are integrally poured, reinforced concrete buildings on rock bases. The doors are guarded by concrete baffles which make it possible to open them in the face of a strong wind; the windows are made of shatterproof glass and are placed in steel frames with waterproof gaskets. Heavy wooden battens may be used to cover the windows and afford an extra measure of protection. The schoolhouses are also designed to serve as a community refuge in times of hurricanes. Each building is equipped with facilities which will provide for as many as 200 persons over a period of several days. Each school has a fully equipped kitchen, a generator for electric lights, a storage tank holding 8500 gallons of water, bedding and cots for 200 persons, and complete lavatory and toilet facilities. Food is stored in specially built compartments. (Roscoe Wright in *Safety Education.)*

★ As a teacher, how many times have you repeated your instructions for doing some particular process? It would be a lifesaver to be able to refer a student to a recording of your original instructions. He could check what he had done and rectify his mistakes. This is precisely the idea which H. D. Allen and C. H. Haas, industrial arts instructors at John Marshall High School, Los Angeles, Calif., have begun to put into usable form. Mr. Allen has prepared a few preliminary records with the assistance of the recorder which Mr. Haas has built. These personalized transcriptions are not intended for distribution. They contain instructions that are just as personal as the original demonstrations: the location of cheesecloth, of filler, of brushes, and the like. The idea has been extended to include instructions for the safe operation of machines and the imparting of vocational guidance information. These transcriptions have some of the characteristics and merits of the job instruction sheets which all good shop instructors use, but they possess a vitality that written instructions lack.—(M. E. Herriott, in *Our Schools.)*

EMOTIONAL WEATHER

DANIEL A. PRESCOTT

In the Educational Record

NO topic of conversation is more trite than the weather, yet scientific studies recently have shown that recovery from illness and operations is greatly influenced by the weather; and characteristic differences in the peoples of the earth have often been attributed to differing climates. It seems that the weather really does something to us.

There is another weather to which all human beings are exposed—the moods of their fellow men. Different people tend to create different climates of feeling among their associates. The whole odor of life is sweet or sour, fragrant or foul, tangy or stifling, according to the moods we inhale from those about us. It is no accident that problem children so often come from homes broken by divorce, that delinquents appear so frequently in certain sections of the great cities. Children are extremely sensitive to the emotional climate enveloping them. Indeed, it may safely be claimed that outlook on life, general ideals, and emotional orientation toward society are picked up unconsciously by children from those about them. These constitute learnings more important than skills in reading or figuring.

The question must be raised, then, whether the emotional climate of the school classroom is commonly a wholesome climate. W. Carson Ryan spent more than a year visiting schools, investigating this question. Here is what he has to say about emotional climate:

"Simple friendliness in the schoolroom would seem to be one of those easily attainable and obviously desirable conditions for any human enterprise having to do with mental good health, but the visitor to the schools *finds it in shockingly few places.*"

Most of us who know Dr. Ryan as an observer more likely to report optimistically than pessimistically on what he sees are startled and disturbed to find such a comment. And we are rightly disturbed.

If we seek the factors which may account for so unwholesome a mental climate in our schools, the following suggest themselves: social tradition, administrative practice, teacher personality, and educational theory. Suppose we take them up in that order.

Strong in our social tradition is the desire for every person to have the opportunity to achieve the richest possible development of his personality. Surely there is nothing but friendliness in that tradition. Yet, in practice, this laudable educational ideal is translated into a series of quite specific objectives—learning to read early in life, becoming accurate spellers, graduating from high school, learning algebra, French, chemistry, civics. The belief in the efficacy of subject learning as the way

to richer life and good citizenship has become a tradition of our society, which the population expects the schools to carry out.

But is it a wholesome tradition? Scientific studies of human growth and development raise serious doubts. These studies suggest that attitudes, value concepts, aesthetic appreciations, moral ideals, and the sympathetic understanding of other human beings have a more important bearing on success, on mental health, on sound character, and on good citizenship than any factual learnings. They suggest that when attitudes, value concepts, and social and aesthetic appreciations are sound there is strong and effective motivation to the necessary factual learning. They imply that where attention is focused on factual learnings very undesirable attitudes and value concepts are likely to be learned incidentally. It follows that a splendid social ideal may have been translated by tradition into unwholesome educational practices which create unfortunate emotional climates in our schools.

In every community the details of educational practice are dictated by an administrative hierarchy. The security of administrators rests entirely upon the extent to which the work of the schools pleases lay boards of education and the public behind them. The administrator's attempt to satisfy the public gives rise, in practice, to strains and tensions among teachers which too often create a climate of insecurity in the schools.

Dr. Ryan says:

"Consideration for the personality of the teacher by the administrator is just as essential as respect for the child's personality by the teacher. The same elements of friendliness, a sense of security, and willingness to build on the possibilities of human beings are involved. *Unfortunately human relations on this basis are all too rare in educational administration.*"

One must conclude either that educational administrators have learned nothing from current educational theory or else that the pressure of social and educational tradition is so strong that they dare not move against it. In any case, too many children continue to dislike school, too many teachers give evidence of being unwholesomely neurotic, and the emotional climate of our schools is far from what it ought to be.

It is, of course, the teachers who finally set the prevailing climate of the classroom. For this reason, the teacher is often the focus of criticism. People say that teachers should be persons of deep insight, wholesome personality, and sympathetic understanding, that the neurotic, the unstable, the uncultured, should be eliminated.

But when one considers the conditions under which teachers work—the low pay, lack of tenure, lack of recreational opportunity, excessive demands on time, lack of social status in many communities, the in-

fluence of pressure groups—one wonders that so many teachers still hold high professional ideals. The conditions under which the teacher lives and works inevitably are major factors in determining his mood in the classroom.

Equally important is the nature of the teacher's tasks as set by his superiors. In general, promotion, security, and professional status of the teacher depend on the proportion of his pupils who "pass." Then how can a teacher have a truly friendly feeling for a child who fails, who misbehaves, who lacks motivation, or gets in the way of the learning of the class? Since the teacher's success depends on the factual and skill learning of the pupils, this sort of learning inevitably becomes the focus of his attention and anything is irritating which interferes with it. Under these conditions the emotional climate is necessarily full of praise and blame, success and failure, competition, repression and revolt; and the teacher is a genius who can maintain a buoyant mood in her pupils from day to day.

Turning to educational theory we find that, while it has been profoundly influenced by findings in the sciences that underlie education, nearly everywhere these findings have been used merely as devices for achieving the traditional objectives of factual learning. Often they have been mere hokus-pokus, strong magic to "solve the problem" of education.

It is to be hoped that we now approach the end of this period of educational magic and are about to enter the long, slow process of adjusting educational practice to the needs of children. This process must rest on the solid foundation of a scientific understanding of human growth and development. We cannot now construct a theory of educational practice which would do justice to the potentialities of all children. But we are ready to make a beginning at the reconstruction of educational theory.

Finally, the public must be taught to understand human development in the new terms. Without adult education we cannot expect to deflect the social tradition which requires present educational practice.

[*Daniel A. Prescott, Professor of Education at Rutgers University, has recently been appointed to the faculty of the University of Chicago. Reported from the* Educational Record, *XX (January, 1939), 96-106.*]

DO SPELLING BOOKS TEACH SPELLING?

H. A. Curtis and E. W. Dolch

In the Elementary School Journal

CHILDREN do learn to spell. The schools have generally claimed that this learning is the result of their teaching. Is the claim well founded? A recent investigation in the schools of Staunton, Illinois, gave results that were rather surprising.

The Staunton schools for several years had used a standard series of workbook spellers, made by specialists and widely used throughout the country. While the results of the spelling program were satisfactory, certain indications caused the superintendent to wonder exactly what function the textbook was serving in the children's learning. He therefore devised a testing program to secure evidence on this point.

Ten weekly tests were prepared totalling 500 words. These were chosen at random, 70 words each from Books II to VII and 80 words from Book VIII. The results of the tests were recorded to show how each child from Grade II to Grade VIII spelled each of the 500 words. They also showed whether the child had encountered any given word in his spelling lesson.

The grade results are shown in the accompanying table. The scores underlined diagonally across the table are those earned on the words which each grade had studied during the 12 months preceding the tests. The scores, ranging from about 60 to 90 percent, seem to indicate satisfactory learning, as a grade average, resulting from routine teaching.

But when one looks at the scores above those underlined, a different conclusion is suggested. These show

TABLE I

Average Scores of Each Grade on Words Taught to Each of Grades II-VIII

Grade Tested	Percentage of Correct Spelling of Words Taught in Grade								
	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	Not Taught	Total
II	58.6	22.9	11.8	9.5	7.0	4.8	3.5	2.6	13.5
III	79.7	71.8	41.4	36.9	24.0	18.4	14.4	10.5	36.6
IV	86.1	79.6	77.4	56.8	43.8	32.3	28.3	23.1	53.6
V	86.8	83.7	75.5	75.8	58.4	47.9	37.8	39.9	63.2
VI	96.5	95.1	90.5	89.1	90.0	71.2	63.1	65.5	82.9
VII	94.6	93.6	85.6	84.5	83.9	80.2	64.2	67.1	81.8
VIII	98.1	97.4	93.2	91.9	90.6	87.1	85.2	82.3	90.8

the percentages of correct spellings of words *before the children had studied them.* Sometimes these scores are very close to the scores made after study. For example, the sixth grade children, without study, made a score of 71.2 percent on seventh grade words, while the seventh grade pupils, after study, scored 80.2 percent on the same words. The scores above the lines indicate that in some cases, two years before they studied words, children did more than half as well as children who had just studied them. In short, the figures indicate that an astonishing amount of learning of spelling takes place without any formal study and years before the words are supposed, by the authors of this typical textbook, to become appropriate for learning.

It is also interesting to look at the figures *below* the lines. These show that in most cases children kept on learning how to spell words year after year, after teaching of the words had ceased. For instance, second grade pupils scored only 58.6 percent on second grade words, but kept on learning these same words until eighth grade pupils made a score of 98.1 percent. Here again is learning without teaching.

Finally, there was a group of words designated "Not Taught" in the table. These were words assigned to the last half of the eighth grade, and had not been taught at all at the time of testing, which came in the middle of the year. Every grade spelled some of these words correctly, and the eighth grade pupils made a score of 82.3 percent.

The figures in the table are grade averages. The scores of individual children, of course, range from almost zero to 100 percent. Characteristically, the upper end of the class spelled words far beyond their grade, and the lower end did not learn words until they were taught. Thus, the blanket statement that children learn to spell without teaching is incorrect. *Some* children learn to spell without teaching; others only after teaching, and sometimes not then.

If children differ in spelling ability, words also differ in spelling difficulty. Just as certain children need much instruction and others do not, certain words need real teaching and other words do not. Ten words were selected at random from Book V. One of these, "address," was spelled correctly by 83 percent of fourth grade children; another, "certain," was spelled correctly by only 2 percent before studying. The other eight words ranged between these extremes. Two of the words, "bones" and "boots," were known by good spellers as early as Grade III but were not known by poor spellers until Grade VI. Five of the words were not known even by good spellers until they were taught in Grade V, and two of these, "appeared" and "certain," were not learned by poor spellers even in Grade VIII. In short, these ten

words vary greatly in difficulty, and the same is true of all the 500 words tested.

The results of this experiment seem to say three things: (1) most of the learning of spelling seems to be done before or after the year of teaching; (2) good spellers do most of their learning without teaching, while poor spellers need even more teaching than they get; and (3) certain easy words, rather than all words, are learned without teaching by good spellers. Hard words are not learned at all by poor spellers, even with teaching.

What practical conclusion may be drawn?

First, work might be done with the word list. Apparently some words are satisfactorily learned without teaching, while others are not learned sufficiently well under present teaching and need to be included in a review system.

Second, certain pupils might be excused from spelling lessons after they had passed proficiency tests. Many children sit through spelling lessons that they do not need.

Third, various plans might be followed to allow both for differences in children and differences in words. In the test-study method, this end is sought. In this method, however, the assumption is that when a word is unknown to a child on the pretest, he must study that word. But the results of this investigation seem to indicate that, if the child is bright, he will probably learn the word later without study. Another method of adjusting both to pupil and words is for each child to keep a notebook in which he develops his own list. While this applies the principle of basing learning on need, it entails an amount of attention from which most teachers shrink.

The question, "Do spelling books teach spelling?" does not seem to have a simple answer. At least this investigation points out that it is not entirely satisfactory merely to buy a good spelling book and follow its directions.

[*H. A. Curtis is Superintendent of Schools in Staunton, Illinois. E. W. Dolch is Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Illinois. Reported from the* Elementary School Journal, *XXXIX (April, 1939), 584-92.*]

DOCTORAL dissertations at the University of Michigan, at the option of the scholar, can now be reproduced photographically on 35mm. film instead of by the more expensive printing method. Abstracts of the dissertations are printed and distributed so that positive film copies can be distributed on demand to those wishing the complete dissertation.

FEDERAL AID AND THE TAX PROBLEM

CLARENCE HEER

Advisory Committee on Education

THE principal conclusions of the present survey of the fiscal aspects of federal aid for education may be briefly summarized.

1. From the point of view of all four of the major tests of a good tax system—fiscal adequacy, administrative efficiency, equity, and economic effects—federal aid for education offers a better method of raising new money for schools than state and local taxation.

2. From the point of view of fiscal adequacy, federal aid is superior because it places the responsibility for raising new school funds on the level of government which has the widest range of productive tax sources at its disposal and which is in the best position to exploit those sources effectively.

3. From the point of view of administrative efficiency, federal aid for education is to be preferred because it will permit the needed school revenue to be raised by methods which involve less annoyance and expense to the taxpayer, which present fewer opportunities for tax avoidance, and which entail relatively lower administrative costs.

4. From the point of view of equity, federal aid for education represents the more desirable alternative because it will place the responsibility for obtaining additional school revenue on the level of government best fitted to distribute its taxes according to the principle of ability to pay. To the extent that public education is a matter of national concern, federal aid will make it possible more nearly to equalize the burden of maintaining a national minimum of educational opportunity throughout the country. To the extent that education is a state and local function, federal aid will provide a means of correcting the inequities in the present system of school support which result from the extraterritorial shifting of state and local taxes.

5. Finally, from the point of view of economic effects, federal aid for education offers the better mode of procedure because the federal government has far greater freedom than have the states and localities to select fiscal measures appropriate to given economic and social objectives.

Clarence Heer is Professor of Economics, University of North Carolina. Reported from Chapter VII, "Principal Conclusions," of Federal Aid and the Tax Problem, *Staff Study Number 4 of the Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. ix + 101.*

CURRENT TRENDS IN SOVIET SECONDARY EDUCATION

ALEXANDER EFRON

In the Educational Forum

IMPELLED to discover a method of instruction which would function with the seriously depleted and inadequately trained teaching staff of the 1920's, the Soviet Commissariat of Education hit on the *complex-project-laboratory* plan which, it was hoped, would prove acceptable in theory and selfpropelled in practice. It soon developed, however, that progressivism, so hastily imported from abroad and so uncritically applied to the new setting, was not working properly. Annual tests and "surveys of accomplishment" revealed poor discipline; there were gaps in the mastery of essentials, graduates of secondary schools were not fit to go on with higher studies.

Accordingly, some half-dozen years ago Russia startled the educational world by abandoning the most ambitious experiment in progressive education ever undertaken. The lesson, the standard textbook, the definitely planned course of study, the formal examination, etc., were all restored to their former importance. Stability thus became the new educational watchword, and progressivism just another movement to be fought and, finally, "liquidated."

The years that followed the return to stable educational procedures were marked by a phenomenal growth in school population, teaching staff, and educational plant. From less than one million in 1914-15, secondary school enrolment rose to more than 17 million in 1936-37. The *desiatiletka* (ten-year school), consisting of a four-year primary and a six-year secondary school, became the dominant type of school organization. Four years of schooling were made compulsory throughout the Union, seven years began to be required in the cities, and the full ten-year program was set as a goal to be reached by 1942.

The curriculum now includes 20 required subjects or disciplines: native language, one foreign language, literature, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, natural history, the constitution of the USSR, history, geography, physics, chemistry, astronomy, drawing, penmanship, drafting, singing, physical education, and military drill. As yet no electives are offered in the secondary school curriculum.

Among the unsolved problems in Soviet education is that of improving the *quality* of the educational product. Postgraduate courses in subject matter and methodology have been established for experienced secondary school teachers as part of the preparation for the *aspirantura* (the equivalent of our M.A.). An enormous number of textbooks and journals are published in the field

of pedagogy, and research institutes are scattered throughout the country.

Special efforts are now being directed toward improvement of the teaching process. A system of Union-wide inspection and supervision is being organized, and the need for supervised study has been recognized.

Much still remains to be accomplished. The merciless *samocritica* (selfcriticism) which fills the pages of Soviet pedagogic literature reveals many gaps and serious lapses. The burden of this criticism, as usual, is directed against deviation from the official Marxist-Leninist theory and its application to education. Thus the rejection of the *complex-project* plan in 1931-32 was motivated not only by its poor results but also by an analysis which showed the plan to be an *individualistic* "leftist" distortion of the orthodox Marxist point of view.

Criticism continues to be directed against the absence of general pedagogic theory. Individual subject-matter methodologies, which still constitute the bulk of advanced *aspirantura* programs, are seen to lack clearness of definition because of their detachment from all-inclusive pedagogic theory. There are revolts against the "naked empiricism" and "recipe-writing" engaged in by subject-matter specialists who do not, as yet, perceive the relationship of their particular specialty to the official dialectical materialism of the state. Textbooks and courses of study are constantly being attacked for their *loskutnost* (scrappiness) and lack of dialectical unity.

Much of this criticism, of course, is pure selfflagellation. Progress, however, *is* undeniably taking place. The Soviet secondary school graduate of today is highly literate, a physically, mentally, and socially developed youngster. He is an omnivorous reader. Naturally, he is indoctrinated in his peculiar "ideological" way of thinking and apt to view the outside "bourgeois" world as having little to contribute to his own development. But such education does promote national loyalty.

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A GROUP of bright children, nine and ten years old, at New York City's experimental Speyer School recently made a better score on an examination on light and illumination than did a group of college seniors who took the same test. The elementary group had used a unit on illumination to enrich its regular curriculum.

VALUES OF LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

S. R. Slavson

In Childhood Education

AMONG the major drives of the child (and adult) is aggression. The very conditions of survival are achieved through aggression. One needs to attack the world and things in order to make his way in life. The problem of education is to convert ego-centered aggressiveness into socially-motivated effort.

Intellect is an instrument of aggression, and if we are to conform to the basic laws of child nature we must employ it as such rather than as a tool of reception and absorption. Psychiatry has amply demonstrated that wholesome development of mind is impossible where physical and mental powers are unduly repressed. The methods of teaching science must be quite different from those now employed. This body of knowledge must be employed to release the intellectual aggressiveness of children. We must provide for them at all points possibilities to break and investigate things, to make and construct, to change and convert. All these are aggressive acts. Their value, however, is determined by the attitude of the aggressor. If he breaks to release hostility, the act is constructive to himself but destructive to others. If breaking is a step in reconstruction, or in making a new object, then the act is constructive from the wider point of view.

Children have not as yet become specialized in their interests. They want to play around, manipulate, search and combine, and so produce startling or interesting results. They may also learn something. But—to the child—this is unimportant. What he wants is to do things, change them around, recombine them. When he becomes interested in what adults call science, he is not interested in any of its formal subdivisions. He is interested in his total environment and in himself—his body, his processes, his relations to the world.

Thus a child's laboratory has to be varied in content rather than specialized, simple rather than complex, and multi-phase so that pupils can find enough to do on their level of development.

A children's laboratory in general science should be made up of familiar things: pots and pans, bottles and corks, electric stoves and candles. More complex and less familiar apparatus is introduced later. Children can be frustrated by things as well as by people. Strange objects frighten them and make them shy quite as much as strange persons.

The activities, too, must be humble at first. We have found it quite adequate if a girl's interest in her laboratory environment began with lighting a candle and dropping the molten grease, first on the table and then into water, thus making "but-

tons." Such idle activity never failed to arouse the desire to make candles. One girl made candles of stearine only and paraffine only. She complained that the first gave a poor light and the second burned up too fast. She wanted to make a candle that would have both advantages. After pondering and talking a great deal, she conceived the idea of mixing the two. One would improve the flame and the other retarded the speed of melting, she said.

Then colored candles became the girls' objective. Several joined together and worked cooperatively on the project. When dyes were obtained, they experimented several days to determine a possible method of coloring the candles before they discovered that the dyes were soluble in hot candle grease.

Such activity seldom remains on the manual level. Problems and difficulties arise with which the children turn to the teacher. His answers push ahead the pupils' intellectual boundaries. The nature and laws of combustion inevitably come under perusal. Then experiments in burning paper, producing carbon, making charcoal for drawing, collecting smoke, water pressures, and many other activities arise. Once the aggressive and pursuit tendencies, which are inherent in the personality, and the drive-to-be-the-cause are aroused, the teacher has little to do save keep up with his eager and resourceful pupils.

The actual working out of self-initiated activity by children under 14 always leads to group projects. If the experiment is impressive or dramatic, others join in at once. They imitate one another, work loosely together, organize temporary groups with a specific plan of operation. All these responses are important in socializing personality. The child learns to associate satisfactions and achievement with group life.

A brief outline of the development of science interest in a group aged 11-12 may illustrate how learning proceeds from experience. One or two children found some prisms and lenses among other simple science materials on a shelf. Intrigued by the colors and distortions of vision, they proceeded into investigatory manipulation, such as combining lenses, varying distances and objects. The results were sufficiently fascinating to draw all the other children of the group into the circle. Much was discovered, and more information supplied from physics texts placed at the pupils' disposal when questions inevitably arose. The teacher's function was not that of oracle, but rather of guide to many sources of information.

As one would expect, the question arose: "How do we see?" Appropriate texts, conferences, discussion were brought into play. "But," the children demanded, "we want to see an eye. We want to cut one open and see what is inside."

Cows' eyes were obtained from our butcher, one for each child. Hav-

ing studied the gross structure of the eye theoretically, they knew what to expect. Most of them were especially intrigued with the lens and the retina, and extracted them with great care. A lens was left to dry for several days, and its crystaline structure revealed.

One or two of the children wore eye-glasses, and the question of their function was propounded. The result was a study of the abnormal construction of the eyes which results in astigmatism, myopia, hyperopia.

"But how do the nerves work to make us see?" came next. We inevitably drifted into a study of the nervous system. Physiology texts were pulled off shelves. An eager group of youngsters was entering the portals of life's deepest mysteries. Many sketches and compositions were written on the information obtained from charts and books. The children were now naturally interested in a preserved brain which, until then, was kept out of their sight. A study of the synapse and the building up of tracts in the nervous system caused one to exclaim: "Now I know why we have habits!" This started a discussion of habits and led us into psychology. Chemistry came under the group's scrutiny as a result of their discovery of the spectrum and the sensation of colors.

A notable development of one girl is worth recording. Having discovered through study and play with a lens, focusing the sun's rays, that heat is a concomitant of light and that color is fundamentally a condition of reflection and absorption of rays of light, she came to the conclusion that different colors would contain different heat quantities. She at once set out to test her theory and evolved entirely on her own the following technique: Upon a strip of paper she drew sections of different colors in crayon. Equipped with a convex lens and a watch she went to the roof of the building and successively focused the sun's rays on each strip of color, noting the time it took to set the paper on fire. She discovered that the time varied for the different colors.

To those who have been trained in epistemology, the significance of this self-originated experiment will be of particular interest. The genesis of the idea, the summation of past knowledge, and the awareness of causative relations are all of high degree. That a girl of 11 can achieve it may be incredible to those who have not had opportunity to observe the resourcefulness of children.

S. R. Slavson is Professor of Education at New York University. Reported from Childhood Education, *XV (April, 1939), 341-46.*

THE PRODUCTION AND USE OF EDUCATIONAL DISC TRANSCRIPTIONS

FRANCIS F. POWERS
In the Phi Delta Kappan

THERE has never been a time since the invention of the phonograph when imaginative educators have doubted its possibilities as a tool in education. But until about 1934 recording equipment and the wax-recording processes were too complicated and costly to be within reach of educational institutions. The first attempts to build cheap equipment and eliminate recording on wax were not very successful. But with the development of "acetate" and "lacquer" coated aluminum discs the whole picture changed. Many now consider the wax process obsolete. "Acetate" can be electroplated just as wax is plated and any number of copies made from the resulting "stamper." Many recording studios and motion picture studios now use "acetate" exclusively. Other types of recording bear watching by educators. The Germans are making effective use of magnetic tap records, and the Miller tap process offers editing and cutting possibilities not possible with disc.

So far as educational purposes are concerned, the phonograph record seems to be moving in two directions: (1) production and distribution of educational transcriptions through large, completely equipped national or state agencies; and (2) small production plants designed to record happenings of local interests or to produce teaching aids intended as an integral part of some local teacher's course of study.

In its completed form, the central agency would contemplate production (not mere distribution) of a wide variety of educational program series of related lectures, musical recordings, etc. Educational institutions all over the state would contribute and these records would be distributed to schools subscribing to the series. Naturally, this type of service, especially if supplemented with pictures, would enormously broaden the educational horizon of schools of limited means. Subject to certain restrictions, it would also be possible to include in such series cuttings of famous events such as a recording of Hitler's speech to the Reichstag to be translated by the German class. The technological problem in such an ambitious setup is substantial.

But when we turn to the less elaborate plant within the reach of many schools, we find the problem less formidable, both as to expenditure and use. There are on the market a number of practical devices for making transcriptions at prices from $250 to $775. These units are generally supplied in portable cases complete with amplifiers, microphones, speakers, and play-back head. This equipment is unsuited for high-

fidelity music recordings, but, if properly operated, it will record speech and incidental music well enough to be acceptable to many small radio stations for broadcast purposes.

Obviously there is a definite lure attached to the making of recordings on the home ground. On the assumption that most of these will be "acetate" jobs for comparatively restricted purposes and a small number of replays, the ambition of any school to get such equipment is not fantastic. The cost of cutting instantaneous records which may be played back immediately runs about $3 per half hour of program time. If "stampers" are processed and pressings made, the cost of recording materials plus the first 10 copies pressed will run about $35 per 15-minute program. Since anyone can learn to make quality records on a well-designed machine after a few hours of instruction, the cost of recording materials should be the only item for operating which most schools will need to pay.

When we come to the equipment which a school must install to play electrical transcriptions, we encounter an almost endless variety. This equipment ranges in complexity and cost from the simple turntable and pickup to "feed" into a radio receiver to the most elaborate central sound communication system. Any good radio-phonograph combination will reproduce the records satisfactorily, but the old acoustic types of phonographs or early electric models should not be considered. Practically all recorders come equipped with a pick-up so the recorder can function as a play-back machine. Practically any small radio used with a play-back motor and a crystal-type phonograph pick-up can be used to reproduce phonograph records and transcriptions to small audiences. The motor and pick-up can be obtained for about $30. With a high-powered radio, the same turntable and pick-up will replay records at a correspondingly higher sound level and quality. The turntable and pick-up will function with public address systems or centralized sound installations. An amplifier and a suitable speaker may also be used.

Most of the centralized sound school installations now manufactured are simply high class loudspeaker intercommunicating systems into which radio can be fed from a radio receiver. They are not intended for high-fidelity reproduction nor are they suited to drive recording equipment. Prices vary from about $500 to $5,000, depending on the size of the school and the nature of the service. Many of these systems have been designed without any survey of the needs of the people who must use them. As a result, at this writing, it is necessary to get a custom-built system if something more than simply an intercommunicating set-up is desired.

In purchasing any audio-visual equipment, it is advisable to get the

advice of an independent technical expert. He can generally save the client many times the price of his fee.

In the writer's opinion, if it is not possible to make a complete installation at one time, equipment should be bought in the following order: (1) record-playing equipment; (2) recording equipment; (3) a studio; (4) centralized sound and public address system built to order; (5) a telephone line to the nearest broadcasting station if it does not cost more than $20 per month; (6) camera and projector equipment for making slides for use with slide-sound-on-disc shows; (7) 16-mm. camera and projector for making movies with sound-on-disc.

Any school which has its own transcription production plant is soon likely to become interested in making slides, or perhaps, motion pictures, with sound-on-disc. The transition is easy and comparatively inexpensive. Obviously the field thus opened to the imaginative teacher is practically limitless.

What of the future? We still lack adequate evidence for passing final judgment on the true effectiveness of audio-visual enrichment. However, it is not too early to state that the administrator whose ambition it is to put in equipment of this sort is not wasting the taxpayers' money on mere gadgets. It is not yet clear exactly how much facilitation of learning we get from these supplementary devices, but that they do stimulate interest and improve learning is now denied by very few.

[*Francis F. Powers is Professor of Education at the University of Washington. Reported from the* Phi Delta Kappan, *XXI (March, 1939), 303-8.*]

TO the little committee which is planning a community program of enlightenment on public affairs, it will seem that their neighbors can be classified about as follows:

5000 ADULT POPULATION OF THE TOWN

Those completely absorbed in themselves, their families, and their friends	4000
Might attend if the right set takes it up	200
Might, if "big-name" speakers	200
Might, if their pet topics are discussed	200
Already have *the* answer (panacea)	100
Eager to advance the community's welfare	100
School people, will attend if urged	100
Learners, mostly youth, who want to learn	100
	5000

—Henry W. Hough in *Adult Education Bulletin*

THE DILEMMA OF DEMOCRACY

JAN MASARYK

DEMOCRATIC education is based on an effort to seek and find the truth. There may be different avenues of approach, but the ultimate goal is genuine knowledge, honestly arrived at. Democracy expects us to live up to certain knowledge, and to esteem essentially necessary prerogatives of human liberty; but beyond that, it gives us fullest freedom to find our salvation in our own way—it respects the human soul as something sacred; each individual is considered a sacred entity.

In the totalitarian states, the individual is the last of all considerations. First comes the All-Mighty State, then the All-Important Race, then Physical Fitness for what the Führer of the German Reich so often mentions — "later at the front." When all these prerogatives are fulfilled—and woe betide the schoolmaster who does not see to it that this is done—there is little time left for what we consider the foundation for becoming a useful member of society. The totalitarian systems have proudly proclaimed a victorious war over all sorts of inferior human beings as their highest goal. Children, beginning at the age of six, imbibe this doctrine. Let me quote Hitler's classical statement: "The plain truth is that men are tired of liberty, and the hardy youth of today want to pass over the decayed corpse of the Goddess of Liberty to ordered hierarchy, war, and glory."

It would be short-sighted and unwise to try to overlook the remarkable success and efficiency of the dictatorships in making this philosophy alive and forcing it down the populace's throat in a colorful and interesting way. One of democracy's outstanding dilemmas is its uncertainty in facing fundamental issues squarely, and preparing a definite method of its own to safeguard its essential institutions. Totalitarian propaganda is magnificent; I have seen its results with my own eyes, and believe me they are frightening. I personally am an enemy of propaganda. What I do feel is that the democracies should answer lying propaganda by stating the truth and making it as clear as possible. Further, the methods employed in spreading untruth and half-truth should be studied from the scientific point of view. This seems to me a necessary precaution if the democratic way of life is to be preserved. We must learn to think critically in order to recognize the line of demarcation between truth and propaganda. The best defense of democracy is an education which encourages critical, scientific weighing of various views.

I am not going to complain about Munich, or talk about it at length, but I would look in vain for a better example of democracy's dilemma than the blundering approach to this charming Bavarian city, and the en-

suing zig-zagging ever since Czechoslovakia was cut up. On the one side we have the loud, dynamic, unscrupulous, and picturesque dictatorships; on the other the tiptoeing, pussyfooting, uncertain, and evading democracies. The greatest mistake, in my opinion, is to try to find a golden mean between the two systems. I can see a possibility of the two systems living side by side for quite some time, but to try and instill certain democratic ideas into the dictators on the one hand, and certain totalitarian tricks into the philosophy of democracy on the other, is bound to lead to disaster. There is no compromise. You either do, or you don't.

I have been connected with politics for 40 years, and I know that a certain flexibility of principles is not a novelty in politics. It existed long before the dictatorships. But lately we have been playing fast and loose with principles to such an extent that the time has come to call a halt.

Freedom of discussion, of scientific thinking, of religious tolerance —all these are being attacked by a powerful group to whom the individual means nothing, and who forbid everything they do not enforce. And I must confess that this is my most serious fear and preoccupation. If we realize the spiritual, ethical values that are being destroyed in Europe every day, we should realize that none of us is definitely out of danger. The physical, military, and community success of the totalitarian states is being paid for by values which democrats cannot spare.

The greatest service to democracy which America in general and educators in particular can do is to make youth realize the overwhelming advantages of democracy over every other system of government. Democracy has its shortcomings, but these are our fault. It is within our reach to make democracy every bit as attractive to our young as the other system has been made by its proponents. But let us do it by intellectual independence instead of regimentation; by baseball instead of continuous marching; by training for dignified peace instead of preparation for horrible slaughter; by religious liberty instead of making a God out of either an individual or the state; by love instead of hate; by truth instead of lies.

Jan Masaryk was formerly Minister to England from Czechoslovakia. Reported from an address before the American Association of School Administrators, February 28, 1939, at Cleveland, Ohio.

THE MYSTERY OF TOBACCO

JAMES FREDERICK ROGERS

In School Life

PARENTS and teachers anxious for the welfare of children are often perplexed over the "tobacco question." Even if they are users of the weed, or have no objection to its use by adults, there are few who do not regret to see the beginning of the habit in young people, and no one has yet suggested that it is of any benefit at this period of life.

So long as such a large percentage of adults of both sexes use tobacco with apparent or real satisfaction, and so long as children are imitative, about the best the teacher or parent can do by way of discouraging its use by them, besides setting a good example, is to cite examples of persons of eminence (including the whole list of notables before the great adventure of Columbus) who did very well without snuffing, chewing, or smoking tobacco. The example of the users may more than offset that of the abstainers, but the solicitous adviser will have done what he can in the matter and have eased his conscience.

So seemingly universal is the use of tobacco in our country (or is it because the smoke and smell are so pervasive) that one is somewhat surprised at the number who do not use it.

Professor O'Shea in his study of *Tobacco and Efficiency* asked concerning the habits of noted persons. Of 156 college presidents, physicians, artists, Congressmen, writers, and others, who were questionnaired, about half were nonsmokers. A majority of financiers and writers of fiction smoked, but 55 percent of the Congressmen who responded were not smokers. Sixty percent of school superintendents set the example of smoking, as also a larger percentage of university presidents.

O'Shea did not divulge all of the names on his list, but he gives the following persons of note who in past or recent tobacco-using time did not have the habit: Robert Burton, William Penn, Jonathan Swift, George Fox, Samuel Johnson, Napoleon, Wellington, Cowper, Hugo, Balzac, Goethe, Heine, Southey, Swinburne, Lincoln, Greeley, Wendell Phillips, William Lloyd Garrison, Beecher, Whittier, John Burroughs, Theodore Roosevelt, Taft, Wilson, Lord Roberts, Robert Baden Powell.

History has repeated itself again, for 40 years ago an Englishman, A. Arthur Reade, sent out a similar questionnaire to representatives of literature, science, and art in Europe and America asking as to their use of both alcohol and tobacco. Of the 124 distinguished men who replied, only 24 confessed to the use of tobacco, although only 30 were abstainers from alcohol in some form.

The results of O'Shea's study whether as regards laboratory or

opinionaire methods are inconclusive so far as adults are concerned. In both high schools and colleges the average marks for scholarship have been found to be somewhat lower among smokers, but we cannot infer from this that the use of tobacco was the cause of the inferior grades. Earp, Kennedy, and others have found that tobacco has a deleterious effect on physical skill and endurance, at least in a considerable percentage of users.

A recent summary of our knowledge of the effects of nicotine is that made by Professor Dixon of the University of Cambridge. In reading it we are strongly reminded of the general conclusions arrived at by students of the effects of alcohol. No two people are alike and the effects of both alcohol and tobacco vary accordingly. Alcohol is spoken of as a stimulant and also as a narcotic. Under the influence of tobacco Professor Dixon says the supersensitive become calm and lose their irritability and the dull and apathetic are stimulated. Just how a substance which is a narcotic can produce the feeling of stimulation seems a mystery but in the case of alcohol this is interpreted as due to a deception of the judgment of the user. Though it improves his opinion of himself it does not improve his work save where it may serve to free him from the trammels of self-consciousness.

If this is the explanation for its extensive use, tobacco may well serve as a milder and safer and more continuously useful substitute for alcohol. The overuse of tobacco, and its use in any quantity by certain persons, is harmful.

While tobacco may in some measure seem beneficial to a large percentage of adults who use it, it is still not proved that it is at any time beneficial for the child, and the time of its use may well be delayed until the days when the stress and strain of "civilization" fall heavily upon his consciousness. It is important also that he be informed that a large percentage of adults do not find the use of tobacco pleasurable or profitable and for a few it is always decidedly harmful.

Whether or not users of tobacco get their money's worth in other ways, Professor Pearl, from his recent study of a group of nearly 7,000 men reached the conclusion that smoking "was associated definitely with an impairment of life duration, and the amount or degree of this impairment increased as the habitual amount of smoking increased."

[*James Frederick Rogers, M.D., is Consultant in Hygiene, U. S. Office of Education. Reported from* School Life, *XXIV (April, 1939), 205.*]

A SMALL TOWN BUILDS A TRADE SCHOOL

LAWRENCE R. SIMPSON
In the Kansas Teacher

CONFRONTED with an increasingly heterogeneous student body and its multiplicity of educational needs, many administrators find only meager finances and a very limited teaching staff with which to meet the issue. However, public demand is a powerful ally not to be overlooked. Usually when the public becomes fully convinced of the real need for some innovation, it will manage the necessary funds. And perhaps with some careful scheming and real cooperative effort, the extended curriculum may not prove so costly after all—at least that has been the experience of the Blue Mound High School which has built and equipped a shop unit of its trade school without voting a single bond. The Blue Mound High School is a typical small seven-teacher high school with an enrolment of 148 in a town of about 500 population.

A good start in trade school work had been made in the wood-working department, but a building and equipment were necessary for machine and shop work. The board of education, with the advice of former Superintendent C. H. Lange, conceived the idea of constructing and equipping a shop as a class project.

As a first step, an idle granary, 24 x 40 feet, was purchased for $235 and moved to the site of the proposed shop. The building was in excellent condition but partitions and flooring had to be torn out and the whole interior remodeled for shop purposes. Also, a foundation and concrete floor had to be made, doors and windows cut and fitted, and the roof shingled.

This work was practically all done by 52 enthusiastic students during their regular shop periods for a total cost of $902. In the work they acquired such practical skills as cement mixing, window fitting, door hanging, electric wiring, shingling, and some sheet metal work.

The next step was the equipping of the shop which proved to be an interesting experience for the boys. Tool cases, vise benches, a welding cabinet, individual equipment drawers, flasks, foundry bench, sand box, and grinding bench were all built in regular class work. The equipment purchased for the shop was as follows: one large machine lathe and motor, four bench vises, two forges, two 125-pound anvils, foundry crucibles, drillpress, oxyacetylene welding equipment, miscellaneous blacksmith tools, foundry sand, and auto-mechanics tools. The school was fortunate enough to procure a used machine lathe in A-1 condition with a complete set of cutting tools and a chuck for $75, thus lessening the cost of tools materially. The cost of all equipment was $503. This, added to the cost of the building, amounts to $1405, which represents

the entire cost of the machine shop division of the trade school.

This year, four class divisions in general shop is all the work being offered in the new unit; but with that as a background, many boys will be ready to go further in welding and auto mechanics or machine and foundry next year. However, only those who show exceptional ability will be encouraged to go on. Other trade school courses now being offered are elementary woodworking, finishing and cabinet making, and drafting.

The course in general shop consists of elementary work in forging, bench work, welding, foundry, machine, pattern making, and auto mechanics. Students rotate from one division to another and are required to work out definite projects in each division, although some projects require work in several. For example, one student who is now making a wind charger has already worked at pattern making, bench work, foundry, and machine lathe. The boys are encouraged to make tools for home and school use, thus providing practical articles and enlisting the enthusiasm of parents.

When a shop student has completed satisfactory work in one shop division, he is given an apprenticeship card showing his rating in that particular work and signed by the instructor and the superintendent.

Perhaps it is rather early to draw conclusions, but one cannot help noticing a difference in the attitudes of a number of boys who had previously seemed to be only loafers. In the trade school they have found a real interest and a place where they can experience the pride of achievement, which leads us to believe that in the past the high school was at fault in not being fitted to the needs of these individuals.

[*Lawrence R. Simpson is Superintendent of Schools, Blue Mound, Kansas. Reported from the* Kansas Teacher, *XLVIII (April, 1939), 14-15.*]

A RECENT U. S. Office of Education study of the expenditure per pupil made for textbooks furnished free by 71 large city public school systems shows that the amount is almost insignificant, first, as compared to the importance of textbooks as instructional aids, and, second, as compared to the total amount expended for the instructional function. Of the total instructional expenditure both in 1932 and 1934, the amount spent for free textbooks was 1.4 percent, while in 1936 it was but 1.3 percent.

ESTABLISHMENT OF YOUNG MEN IN FARMING

F. W. LATHROP
In Agricultural Education

THE course in vocational agriculture should not end when students leave high school. These students are more in need of training and advice during the years immediately after high school, when they are becoming established, than at any other time. Unless young men are assisted in establishment in farming, vocational agriculture must be judged ineffective.

The best single method for evaluating the effectiveness of vocational agriculture is to study the occupational progress of former students. In 1936-37, the Office of Education made a survey of the status of former all-day agricultural students in the North Atlantic states. The survey included 7,512 former students. The general impression is that our former students, on leaving school, for the most part become farm owners. On the contrary, this survey showed only 5 to 6 percent of our former students owning farms. About 10 percent were partners in a farm business, usually at home. Another 10 percent were in occupations related to farming, such as teaching agriculture, working in a creamery, etc. More than 15 percent were farm laborers. Nearly 25 percent were in occupations not related to farming. The small percentage of farm owners is probably due to the fact that, for the most part, they have had very little opportunity to advance to ownership. Eventually a large proportion of these young men will probably be farm owners, but since the distribution here includes many younger men, the proportion of former students who are owners is relatively small.

If the teacher of agriculture is to assist his former students to become established in farming and thus make his preliminary results final, he should find farming opportunities for them in the local area. These opportunities are of several types:

1. Opportunities to buy farms: The teacher can be of service if he knows the farms that are, or will be, for sale.

2. Opportunities to rent farms: Many of our young men who are members of large families will rent farms as a step toward ownership. The teacher can render much assistance if he is in touch with renting opportunities.

3. Opportunities to work for wages for a good farmer: Working with good farmers serves as an invaluable supplement to formal training. "Elmer Wood decided he did not want to go into dairying. A teacher at the Bristol County Agricultural School suggested duck farming and it appealed to him. It was also suggested that he get some experience on a duck farm before embarking in the business. He worked for wages with two different

duck growers for a period of three years and then bought the farm on which he is now located."

The Bristol County School used the services of outstanding farmers to supplement the training of Elmer Wood.

4. Opportunities at home: "When Rockwell Donelson left school he continued with his father. The arrangement was that he should receive one-half the profits from the poultry. At the age of 21 he became half-owner of everything except the real estate."

The father evidently wanted his son as a partner and made a thoroughgoing job of it. This very satisfactory arrangement resulted from the far-sightedness and liberality of the father plus the long, effective, persistent service of the teacher.

"When Franklin Scott finished four years of vocational training he went to work for his father and had a share of the profits. After two years Franklin took over the poultry business. In return for the use of poultry houses and land and board, he furnished poultry and eggs for the home, manure for the farm, and labor on enterprises other than poultry. This arrangement continues to the present." He is a good example of a young man who lives at home and obtains his income from one or more farm enterprises. Incidentally, he would not have gone into farming if it had not been for vocational agriculture and the unusual services of the teacher.

"At the time Osborne West graduated he owned four cows and five heifers. This nucleus of a dairy herd has now increased to 30 head. He has developed at home a herd of his own. He is well on the road to establishment as a dairyman, either at home or on some other farm."

If the teacher is to assist former students to become established in farming he should know all four types of opportunities in his area. This means a survey of some kind, which is periodically checked and kept up to date. The study must be continuous if it is to function. Probably a record card should be filed for each farm in the area.

Since many young men will find their best opportunities at home, a special study of home situations is very important. A case study of each farm to determine what changes, if any, would make it possible for a son to be taken into the business would be a distinct contribution.

A study of how present farm owners became established, how they obtained capital and credit, accumulated livestock and equipment, and their parental relationships is needed.

[*F. W. Lathrop is a Specialist in Agricultural Education, U. S. Office of Education. Reported from* Agricultural Education, *XI (March, 1939), 165-68.*]

PERSONALITIES: **Layton S. Hawkins** has been named chief of the trade and industrial education service in the U. S. Office of Education. . . . **William C. Bagley,** professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, has been granted a leave of absence for the coming year and will become professor emeritus on July 1, 1940. . . . **Franklyn B. Snyder,** vice-president and dean of the faculties of Northwestern University will succeed to the presidency on the retirement of **Walter Dill Scott** next September. . . . **Bart C. Van Ingen** has submitted his resignation as superintendent of the Kingston, N. Y., schools. . . . **Frank J. Prout,** superintendent of schools at Sandusky, Ohio, has been appointed president of Bowling Green State University. . . . **J. Ruskin Howe** is the new president of Otterbein College, Westerville, Ohio. . . . **Robert Hoppock,** assistant director of the National Occupational Conference, has been appointed professor of education and chairman of the department of personnel administration at New York University on the retirement of **Anna Y. Reed.** . . . **Dora S. Lewis,** director of home economics in the Seattle, Wash., public schools, has been named professor of education and chairman of the department of home-making and home economics at New York University. . . . **Edgar G. Gammon** has accepted the presidency of Hampton-Sydney College, Va., on the retirement of **Joseph D. Eggleston.** . . . **Samuel Fausold** has resigned as president of the Indiana, Pa., State Teachers College. . . . **Deane Waldo Malott,** associate professor in the Business School of Harvard University, has been elected chancellor of the University of Kansas, succeeding **Ernest H. Lindley** who is retiring. . . . **H. M. Byram** of Michigan State College is the new editor of *Agricultural Education.* . . . New members of the faculty of the College of Education of the University of Alabama are **Ralph C. Dailard, James A. Lindsay,** and **Mrs. Tullye B. Olds.** . . . **Tracy E. Dale** has been named superintendent of the St. Joseph, Mo., schools. . . . **Herbert J. Burgstahler** has succeeded **Edmund D. Soper** as president of Ohio Wesleyan University on the latter's retirement. . . . **Charles E. Greene,** assistant superintendent of the Denver, Colo., schools, will become superintendent in August when **Alexander J. Stoddard** assumes the superintendency of the Philadelphia, Pa., schools. . . . **George Norlin** has resigned as president of the University of Colorado. . . . **Rex B. Cunliffe,** associate professor of education, Rutgers University, was elected president of the National Vocational Guidance Association at the recent annual meeting. . . . **James W. Putnam** has resigned as the president of Butler University. . . . **S. Willard Price** of the Teachers College of Connecticut has resigned

to accept a position at the Connecticut State College. . . . **Guy Wimmer** has been named president of Shurtleff College, Alton, Ill.

THE sum of $6,500,000 has been appropriated by the Walter P. Murphy Foundation for the establishment of an Institute of Technology at Northwestern University. The Institute, which will offer courses in civil, mechanical, chemical, and electrical engineering, will be conducted on a cooperative basis with the students spending a part of the time on the campus and the remainder in carefully selected cooperating industries. Work has already begun on the construction of buildings to house the Institute.

THE Los Angeles, California, Board of Education has established a quarterly journal, *Our Schools,* which will serve as a house organ for the public schools staff, not as a publicity medium. The first issue is beautifully printed on glazed paper with profuse illustrations from the local schools.

THE American Educational Research Association has recently announced awards for outstanding studies in research in three educational fields. Recipients of the awards were:

J. Wayne Wrightstone, in the field of the curriculum, for *Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools,* 1935, and *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices,* 1936. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. Significant for the development of techniques for the evaluation of curricula and instructional procedures.

Newton Edwards, in the field of school organization, for *The Courts and the Public Schools.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. "A scholarly compilation and interpretation of court decisions" affecting public schools.

Martha C. Hardy and Carolyn H. Hoefer, in the field of elementary school subjects, for *Healthy Growth.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. "Outstanding for care in planning, thoroughness of procedure, and application" for a long-time period of research.

WHAT is believed to be the first television program to be received in a public school or university took place on January 25, 1939, when a program was telecast from a Los Angeles station and was received at the John H. Francis Polytechnic High School in Los Angeles, the Polytechnic High School in Long Beach, the University of Southern California, and Occidental College.

NEW enrollees in CCC camps, under certain conditions, are given permission to choose certain camps which offer distinctive educational programs or work projects adapted to the needs of the individual student. This is the first recognition given to differences in the programs

of camps and in individuals and has implications for a broader recognition of the educational function of the camps.

MONTANA and Idaho have recently enacted legislation authorizing the establishment of public junior colleges. Idaho's law authorizes partial state support for the institutions. Both states are planning immediate action to start operations. More than half the states now have similar laws.

RECORDINGS of a significant network educational radio series—a development long awaited by teachers, educators, and civic leaders—are now ready, Commissioner of Education John W. Studebaker has announced. First offering of the new service is a series of 24 transcriptions of the *Americans All—Immigrants All* series, now having its premiere over 104 stations of the Columbia Broadcasting System. The introduction of these new educational aids into the classroom is relatively easy and inexpensive. Special play-back equipment is necessary for the larger 16-inch recordings, but the 12-inch recordings can be played on an ordinary phonograph. A *Teachers' Manual and Student Guide* which gives suggestions for class and out-of-class use is supplied free with each purchase of recordings. Intended for educational purposes only, the recordings are not available to commercial radio stations. A leaflet giving complete information on recordings is available from the Educational Radio Script Exchange of the Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

THE Chicago Teachers Union made history among teacher groups when it signed a contract with the Civic Medical Center recently. According to the contract the Chicago Teachers Union came under the Civic Medical Center Group Health Security Plan; and from now on Union members desiring to do so may affiliate with the Civic Medical Center and receive adequate medical, surgical, and preventive care at the rate of $30 per year per family and $18 per year for a single person. This reasonable relationship provides diagnosis and treatment in all departments, major and minor surgery, delivery, and periodic health and physical examinations.

A LARGE part of the millions of students who will complete their schooling this year are wholly unprepared for the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy. Such is the conclusion of the pamphlet, *Schools for Tomorrow's Citizens*, published by the Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. The pamphlet, prepared by Maxwell S. Stewart, editor of the Public Affairs Pamphlet series, summarizes the findings of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost

of Public Education in the State of New York, with special reference to conditions in other states and may be secured for ten cents.

EDUCATIONAL leaders and child welfare experts from all parts of the country were called to the White House on April 26 to attend the first session of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. President Roosevelt is honorary chairman of the conference while Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins is chairman and Katherine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, is executive secretary. Miss Perkins has pointed out that the President called the conference "because of his conviction that a society founded on democratic principles finds both its aim and its security in the happiness and well-being of its people, and especially its children." Members are "to develop practical suggestions as to ways in which we in the United States may give greater security to childhood and a larger measure of opportunity to youth."

THE 15th Yearbook of the Educational Press Association of America, *America's Educational Press,* containing a classified list of educational periodicals listing more than 500 magazines under 43 classifications will be off the press June 1. Copies may be secured for 50 cents from the Educational Press Association of America, 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington, D. C.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

May 1-10, Tenth Institute for Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio.

May 3-6, Eastern District Meeting, American Association for Health and Physical Education, New York City.

May 12-13, New England Modern Language Association, Hartford, Conn.

May 15-17, American Association for Adult Education, Niagara Falls, Ont.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

June 15-17, Tenth Annual School Administrators' Conference, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.

June 18-24, American Library Association, San Francisco, Calif.

June 19-22, National Conference on Visual Education, Chicago, Ill.

June 20-23, American Home Economics Association, San Antonio, Texas.

July, 2-6, National Education Association, San Francisco, Calif.

July 3-6, National Convention of Student Officers and Advisers, San Francisco, Calif.

July, 8-21, Third Annual Conference on Elementary Education, NEA, University of California at Berkeley.

July 10-21, National League of Teachers' Associations 14th Annual College, Stanford University, Calif.

August 6-11, Eighth Biennial Conference, World Federation of Education Associations, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

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KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS OF NAMES OF PERIODICALS

Adult Ed. Bul.—Adult Education Bulletin.
Advis. Com. Ed.—Advisory Committee on Education.
Amer. Teach.—American Teacher.
A.V.A.J. & News Bul.—American Vocational Association Journal & News Bulletin.

Bal. Sheet—Balance Sheet.
Bul. Dept. Sec.-Sch. Prin.—Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.

Cal. J. Sec. Ed.—California Journal of Secondary Education.
Can. Sch. J.—Canadian School Journal.
Cath. Ed. R.—Catholic Educational Review.
Char. & Cit.—Character and Citizenship.
Childh. Ed.—Childhood Education.
Clearing House—Clearing House.
Coop. Prin. & Prac.—Cooperative Principles and Practices, 11th Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.
Cur. J.—Curriculum Journal.

Ed.—Education.
Ed. Admin. & Sup.—Educational Administration and Supervision.
Ed. Amer. Life.—Education for American Life.
Ed. by Radio—Education by Radio.
Ed. Forum—Educational Forum.
Ed. Meth.—Educational Method.
Ed. Pol. Comm.—Educational Policies Commission.
Ed. Rec.—Educational Record.
Ed. Res. Bul.—Educational Research Bulletin.
Ed. Scene—Educational Scene.
Ed. Screen—Educational Screen.
Ed. Trends—Educational Trends.
El. Sch. J.—Elementary School Journal.
Engl. J.—English Journal.

Fit to Teach—Fit to Teach, 9th Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers, National Education Association.

Grade Teach.—Grade Teacher.

Harvard Ed. R.—Harvard Educational Review.
High Pts.—High Points.
High Sch. J.—High School Journal.

Ind. Ed. M.—Industrial Education Magazine
Inst.—The Instructor.

J. Chem. Ed.—Journal of Chemical Education.
J. Ed.—Journal of Education.
J. Ed. Res.—Journal of Educational Research.
J. Ed. Soc.—Journal of Educational Sociology.
J. Excep. Childr.—Journal of Exceptional Children.
J. Health & Phys. Ed.—Journal of Health & Physical Education.
J. Higher Ed.—Journal of Higher Education.
J. Home Econ.—Journal of Home Economics.
J. Nat. Assn. Deans Women—Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women.
J. Negro Ed.—Journal of Negro Education.
J. Rosen. Fund R.—Julius Rosenwald Fund Review, 1936-38.
J. Sch. Health—Journal of School Health.
Jun. Col. J.—Junior College Journal.

Kans. Teach.—Kansas Teacher.

L.A. Sch. J.—Los Angeles School Journal.

Math. Teach.—Mathematics Teacher.
Men. Hygiene—Mental Hygiene.
Mod. Lang. J.—Modern Language Journal.

Nat. El. Prin.—National Elementary Principal.
Nat. Par. Teach.—National Parent Teacher.
Nation's Sch.—Nation's Schools.
North Cen. Assn. Q.—North Central Association Quarterly.
N.Y. State Ed.—New York State Education.
N.Y. Times—New York Times.

Occ.—Occupations.

Phi De. Kap.—Phi Delta Kappan.
Progres. Ed.—Progressive Education.
Res. Bul. N.E.A.—Research Bulletin of the National Education Association.

Sch.—School.
Sch. Act.—School Activities.
Sch. Exec.—School Executive.
Sch. Life—School Life.
Sch. R.—School Review.
Sch. & Soc.—School and Society.
Sci. Ed.—Science Education.
Sec. Ed.—Secondary Education.
Soc. Ed.—Social Education.
Soc. Front.—Social Frontier.
Soc. Studies—Social Studies.
Struc. & Admin. Ed. Amer. Dem.—The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy.

Teach. Col. Rec.—Teachers College Record.
Time—Time Magazine

Univ. H. Sch. J.—University High School Journal.
Univ. Mich. Sch. Ed. Bul.—University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin.

Items are listed under key word in the title as well as by the author's name. The month indicated is the issue of the EDUCATION DIGEST in which the article appeared. The number refers to the page on which the article may be found. The name of the publication from which the article is condensed is also contained in the listing.

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Barker, Charles Monroe. Why Fear Federal Aid? *Nation's Sch.* Apr., 37.
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Barr, Stringfellow. John Doe Goes to St. John's. *Progres. Ed.* Feb., 7.
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Bell, Howard M. Youth and the School. *Youth Tell Their Story.* Sept., 1.
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Bennett, Fay. Youth and Peace. *J. Ed. Soc.* Apr., 51.
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Bible Reading in the Public Schools. Alvin W. Johnson. *Ed.* Mar., 58.
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Buckley, H. M. Cleveland's New Shortwave Station. *Ed. by Radio.* Oct., 32.
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Camping, the Interests of Education in. Elmer D. Mitchell. *Phi De. Kap.* Feb., 22.
Carrothers, Chester C. An Adventure in Community Relations. *Cur. J.* Mar., 27.
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Childhood Education, Changing Emphasis in Early. John E. Anderson. *Sch. & Soc.* Feb., 16.
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English Come In?, Where Does. Ed. S. Fulcomer. *Engl. J.* Jan., 22.
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Fulcomer, Ed. S. Where Does English Come in? *Engl. J.* Jan., 22.

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Think. *Ed. Forum.* Mar., 16.
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Number XIX

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